

**Functional biodiversity and plasticity of methanogenic biomass from a full-scale
mesophilic anaerobic digester treating nitrogen-rich agricultural wastes**

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Abstract

The effect of ammonia on methanogenic biomass from a full-scale agricultural digester treating nitrogen-rich materials was characterized in batch activity assays subjected to increasing concentrations of total ammonia N. Acetotrophic and methanogenic profiles displayed prolonged lag phases and reduced specific activity rates at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, though identical methane yields were ultimately reached. These results agreed with the expression levels of selected genes from bacteria and methanogenic archaea (qPCR of 16S rRNA and *mrcA* cDNA transcripts). Compound-specific isotope analysis of biogas indicated that ammonia exposure was associated to a transition in methanogenic activity from acetotrophy at 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ to intermediate and complete hydrogenotrophy at 3.5 and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹. Such pattern matched the results of 16S-Illumina sequencing of genes and transcripts in that predominant methanogens shifted, along with increasing ammonia, from the obligate acetotroph *Methanosaeta* to the hydrogenotrophic *Methanoculleus* and the poorly understood methylotrophic *Methanomassiliicoccus*. The underlying bacterial community structure remained rather stable but, at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, the expression level increased considerably for a number of ribotypes that are related to potentially syntrophic genera (e.g. *Clostridium*, *Bellilinea*, *Longilinea*, and *Bacteroides*). The predominance of hydrogenotrophy at high ammonia levels clearly points to the occurrence of the syntrophic acetate oxidation (SAO), but known SAO bacteria were only found in very low numbers. The potential role of the identified bacterial and archaeal taxa with a view on SAO and on stability of the anaerobic digestion process under ammonia stress has been discussed.

Keywords: Ammonia; anaerobic-digestion; active microbiome; C-isotopic biogas fractionation; syntrophic-acetate-oxidation (SAO).

INTRODUCTION

The anaerobic digestion (AD) of organic materials is a well-consolidated technology for the treatment and revalorization of organic waste into renewable energy (methane from biogas), and contributes significantly to the sustainability of several industrial processes (Lettinga, 2010). However, a significant proportion of the organic waste generated by the agrifood sector contains relatively large amounts of nitrogenated compounds (i.e. animal dejections, slaughterhouse by-products, and other protein-rich food-processing wastes). Organic nitrogen compounds are reduced to free ammonia (NH_3), often referred as free ammonia N (FAN), and its ionized counterpart ammonium (NH_4^+). In aqueous media, these two chemical species are in a pH and temperature-depending equilibrium. NH_3 is by far a stronger inhibitor of methanogenesis than NH_4^+ but, because of practical reasons, NH_3 and NH_4^+ are commonly measured together as total ammonia N (TAN) (Yenigün and Demirel, 2013). Such inhibitory effects might affect all microbial communities involved in the AD syntrophy, but the methanogenic archaea appear to be particularly sensitive to ammonia exposure (Demirel and Scherer, 2008). Yet, not all methanogens are affected equally; acetoclastic methanogenic archaea (AMA), which under common non-inhibitory conditions are responsible for most of the generated methane (CH_4), have been described to be vulnerable to relatively low concentrations of ammonia (circa $3.5 \text{ gN-TAN L}^{-1}$) (Banks et al., 2012; Schnürer and Nordberg, 2008). Conversely, the less sensitive hydrogenotrophic methanogenic archaea (HMA) are able to remain active at those concentrations, while reported ammonia inhibition thresholds are above 5 gN-TAN L^{-1} (Wang et al., 2015). Furthermore, AMA inhibition by ammonia might result in the accumulation of acetate up to inhibitory levels, thus contributing further to a negative feedback mechanism that eventually leads to complete reactor failure (Wang et al., 2015).

Under such high concentrations of ammonia and/or acetate, the so-called syntrophic acetate oxidizing bacteria (SAOB) are able to reverse the homoacetogenic pathway and convert acetate to carbon dioxide (CO₂) and hydrogen (H₂) (Schnürer et al., 1999). This process is thermodynamically favourable through the concomitant consumption of H₂ by HMA and, therefore, the syntrophic association between SAOB and HMA prevents the inhibition of methanogenesis during the AD of nitrogen-rich substrates (Petersen and Ahring, 1991). An increasing number of SAOB strains have been isolated in the recent years and their physiology and genetics have been characterized quite thoroughly, but information on the diversity, occurrence and role of SAOB in full-scale anaerobic digesters is still limited (Westerholm et al., 2016). In an earlier integrative study based on the metagenomic characterization of biomass and on the biogas isotopic profiling of different industrial anaerobic digesters, we pointed out at the predominance of both HMA communities and the hydrogenotrophic pathway in those digesters operated under relatively high nitrogen loads (Ruiz-Sánchez et al., 2018). These conditions are conducive to the enrichment of SAOB.

Here we aim at gaining a deeper insight into the microbial interactions, both of metabolically active bacterial and archaeal populations that are potentially involved in the SAO process. This new study focuses at the methanogenic biomass from an industrial anaerobic digester treating nitrogen-rich agricultural wastes with no previous records of process inhibition. A diversified research approach has been adopted for this purpose, which combined batch methanogenic activity assays under different ammonia contents, with Compound-Specific Isotope Analysis (CSIA) of ¹³C/¹²C natural isotopic fractionation of CH₄ and CO₂ in the generated biogas, and the in-depth characterization of present and metabolically active microbial populations by 16S-Illumina sequencing. The time-course

expression of relevant genes from bacteria (16S rRNA) and methanogenic archaea (methyl coenzyme M reductase; *mcrA*) was quantified by qPCR.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Batch experiments

Methanogenic biomass was collected from a 1,500 m³ full-scale completely stirred tank reactor (CSTR) for the anaerobic co-digestion of pig slurry and protein-rich agricultural wastes (Vilasana, Lleida, Spain). This digester was operated according to the following average parameters: total ammonia N (TAN) = 5.2 gN-TAN L⁻¹, chemical oxygen demand (COD) = 101.2 gO₂ L⁻¹, volatile suspended solids (VSS) = 61.2 g L⁻¹, pH = 8.3, acetate concentration = 0.0 gAc L⁻¹, hydraulic retention time (HRT) = 65 days, and temperature within the mesophilic regime. Experiments were conducted in triplicate batch cultures (120 mL total volume, 60 mL working volume, inoculated with 12.7 gVSS L⁻¹), containing 1.0, 3.5 or 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ by adding NH₄Cl and 2.36 gAc L⁻¹ as sodium acetate. Anaerobic conditions were generated by flushing N₂ during 10 min. Cultures were incubated at 37°C under rotatory shaking and a bicarbonate buffer solution was added to maintain a constant pH of 8 throughout the experiment. Control vials with neither acetate nor ammonia were included to assess the endogenous CH₄ production of the inoculum.

Specific rates of acetate consumption and CH₄ production were determined and expressed as gCOD gVSS⁻¹ d⁻¹ (conversion factors: 2.857 mgCOD mLCH₄⁻¹; 1.067 gCOD gAc⁻¹). For this purpose, samples of the liquid phase from each batch replicate (1 mL) were collected after 0, 7, 11 and 17 days of incubation and directly centrifuged (4°C, 20,000 rpm, 5 minutes). The supernatant (clarified fraction) was used for chemical analysis, while the pellets (sedimented fraction) were kept at -80°C until further processing via molecular biology tools. Samples from the headspace of each culture were taken

periodically for the characterization of the biogas composition during the experiment. CH₄ yield (mLCH₄ gCOD⁻¹), lag phase and specific CH₄ production rate (*r*CH₄; mgCOD gVSS⁻¹ d⁻¹) were calculated after fitting the experimental data to the modified Gompertz equation. Samples of the accumulated biogas at the end of the incubation were collected for analysing the natural ¹³C/¹²C isotopic fractionation of CH₄ and CO₂. Gas/liquid volume changes due to sampling were taken into account in the calculation of mass balances.

Analytical methods

Total Kjeldhal Nitrogen (TKN), TAN and pH were determined according to the Standard Methods (APHA, 2005). The biogas was monitored along the experiment by sampling 100µl from headspace of each batch. Biogas composition (CH₄ and CO₂) and the concentration of individual volatile fatty acids (VFA) in the liquid media, including acetic (Ac), propionic, butyric, valeric and caproic acids, were measured in a gas chromatograph (Varian CP-3800). This instrument was equipped with a Varian Hayesep-Q 80-100 mesh capillary column and a TCD detector for the analysis of biogas, or a TRB-FFAP capillary column and a FID detector for the analysis of VFA.

CSIA of ¹³C/¹²C natural isotopic fractionation of biogas components was carried out by gas chromatography combustion–isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC–IRMS). An Agilent 6890 gas chromatograph was fitted with a split/splitless injector and coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Delta Plus Finnigan MAT) via a combustion interface (850°C), consisting of a 60 cm quartz tube (0.65 mm ID) filled with copper oxide. A liquid nitrogen cold trap was used to remove water. Separation was achieved on a Cpsil5CB (Chrompack) fused silica capillary column (60 m×0.32 mm; 0.12 µm film thickness) using He as carrier gas. The oven temperature was held at 40°C for 1 min, and increased to 320°C at a rate of 10°C min⁻¹. This final temperature was maintained for 25 minutes.

Squalene was used as internal standard. Each sample was run in triplicate to ensure reproducibility within $\pm 0.2\%$ (1σ), relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) standard. All carbon isotopic ratios were expressed as ‰ relative to the VPDB standard, and the apparent fractionation factor (α_C) was determined according to Conrad et al., (2009). A α_C within the range of 1.040 – 1.055 corresponded to a predominantly acetotrophic AD process, while that of 1.055 – 1.080 was mainly hydrogenotrophic (Conrad, 2005; Penning and Conrad, 2007).

Molecular methods

Total genomic DNA and RNA from all previously centrifuged biomass samples (pellets) were simultaneously extracted by an adapted protocol of the PowerMicrobiome™ RNA Isolation kit (Qiagen). The RNA extracts were treated during 10 min at 25 °C with 10 units of DNase I to remove any contamination of genomic DNA, and directly subjected to a 16S rRNA-based PCR amplification to verify their purity (Prenafeta-Boldú et al., 2014). RNA extracts were subsequently transcribed to cDNA by means of PrimeScript™ RT reagent Kit (Perfect Real Time, Takara) following the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA and DNA extracts were kept frozen at –80 °C until further analysis.

Total and active bacterial populations and methanogenic archaea were quantified by means of qPCR amplification of 16S rRNA and *mcrA* genes, respectively (Sotres et al., 2014). Reactions were carried out using the Brilliant II SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix (Stratagene) on a Real-Time PCR System Mx3000P (Stratagene). The specificity of the qPCR amplifications was determined by observations of the corresponding melting curves and gel electrophoresis profiles. To prepare the corresponding standard curves two duplex DNA were synthesized (Metabion GmbH). Ten-fold serial dilutions of both standard genes

were subjected to qPCR assays in duplicate showing a linear response between 10^1 and 10^8 gene copy numbers. The qPCR standards for both genes fitted quality standards with amplification efficiencies between 90 and 110% and R^2 above 0.985. All results were processed by the MxPro™ QPCR software (Stratagene). All results obtained from triplicate independent batches were treated statistically. The Shapiro-Wilk test was performed to determine whether data were normally distributed. Considering the paired structure and normal distribution of the data, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. The combination of factors were the sampling time (0, 7, 11 and 17 days) and the TAN treatments (1.0, 3.5 and 6.0 gN-TAN). Subsequently, pairwise comparisons Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) were applied to test differences between batches by sampling periods. The significance threshold was established at 0.05 type I error. All statistical analysis were performed by means of XLSTAT 2018 software (Addinsoft) and SigmaPlot 11.0 software.

The time course evolution of methanogenic activity and expression of 16S rRNA and *mcrA* genes determined the sampling periods for high throughput sequencing. The microbial community structure was characterized by 16S-Illumina sequencing analysis after 11 and 17 days, respectively for batches exposed to 1.0, 3.5, and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, when the maximum CH₄ production rates and gene expression level was recorded (Figures 1 and 2). Microbial diversity in the bacteria and archaea domains was assessed in duplicate by means of 16S rRNA Illumina (MiSeq) high-throughput sequencing as described previously (Pelissari et al., 2017). The obtained DNA and cDNA reads were compiled in FASTq files for further bioinformatic processing. Trimming of the 16S rRNA barcoded sequences into libraries was carried out using the QIIME software version 1.8.0 and quality filtering of the reads was performed at Q25, prior to their grouping into Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) at a 97% sequence homology cut-off. OTUs were then taxonomically classified

using the RDP Naïve Bayesian Classifier (2.2) with a bootstrap cut-off value of 80%, and compiled to each taxonomic level.

The number of observed OTUs, Goods coverage, alpha biodiversity parameters (the inverted Simpson and Shannon indexes), and species richness (Chao1 estimator) were calculated using the Mothur software v.1.35.9 (<http://www.mothur.org>). The number of reads were rarefacted to the lowest number among the different samples. The sequence data from the MiSeq NGS assessment were submitted to the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) of the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) under the study accession number PRJNA385091.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Batch incubation experiments

Methanogenic activity assays

The time-course evolution of acetate and CH₄ was monitored at low, intermediate and high ammonia exposure (1.0, 3.5, and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹) in batches that were inoculated with freshly collected biomass from the studied agricultural anaerobic digester (Figure 1). The estimated FAN concentrations at the tested intermediate and high ammonia exposure were above the inhibitory threshold for methanogenesis (Table 1), considering that values as low as 250 mg L⁻¹ have been found to impair the anaerobic digestion process with unacclimated biomass (Yenigün and Demirel, 2013). The specific acetate uptake rate (*r*Ac) was similar up to 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹ but it decreased by 46% at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (Table 1). The impact of ammonia on methanogenesis was also significant since the CH₄ production rate (*r*CH₄) decreased by 26% and 31% upon ammonia exposure at 3.5 and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, with respect to the *r*CH₄ at 1 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (Table 1). This apparent **higher** vulnerability of acetate-utilizing microorganisms might be the result of the well-known susceptibility of

AMA to ammonia (Hunik et al., 1990). Under such conditions, acetate might also be consumed by the SAOB but this metabolic process has been associated to relatively low conversion rates (Sun et al., 2014). Along with a high ammonia content, those digesters were often characterized by a prolonged biomass retention time and thermophilic temperature, parameters that have been identified as crucial for the enrichment of the rather slow-growing SAO microbial communities (Sun et al., 2014). However, despite the lower metabolic rates under high ammonia concentrations, all tested batches reached a similar CH₄ yield and more than the 80% of the added acetate was eventually recovered as CH₄ in terms of COD equivalents.

Isotopic fractionation of biogas

Most of the previous studies on the application of isotopic analysis of biogas for the characterization of anaerobic digesters subjected to high ammonia levels were based on using radioactive (Karakashev et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2014) or stable (Mulat et al., 2014) isotope-labelling at the acetate methyl group. The protocol implemented in this study based on CSIA of ¹³C/¹²C natural isotopic fractionation provided a deeper insight on the methanogenic pathways, without the need of using expensive and/or dangerous labelled substrates. The apparent fractionation factor α_C as defined by Whiticar and Faber (1986) from the measured δCH_4 and δCO_2 , and later reviewed by (Conrad et al., 2009) was used. This factor indicates that environments with a $\alpha_C < 1.055$ are dominated by AMA, while those with a $\alpha_C > 1.065$ point to the predominance of HMA (up to exclusive hydrogenotrophy at $\alpha_C = 1.085$). From the α_C values calculated in the present study, it can be concluded that increasing the ammonia content prompted a metabolic shift in methanogenesis from AMA at 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ to a HMA activity that was predominant at 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹, and even exclusive at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (Table 1). This shift from acetotrophic to hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis is consistent with previous observations

from anaerobic digesters under increasing ammonia concentrations (Wang et al., 2015). Concurrent prevalence of hydrogenotrophy along with consumption of acetate (added as the sole electron source), strongly supports the hypothesis that biomass from the studied anaerobic digester contained SAO species that were active under a relatively high ammonia content. Furthermore, these results also indicate that, despite its previous history of acclimation and adaptation to high nitrogen loads, the methanogenic biomass was still able to modulate the metabolism towards acetotrophy when exposed to low concentrations of ammonia.

Microbial community analysis

Quantitative expression profile of selected functional genes

The effect of ammonia on the expression ratio (qPCR quantification of transcripts versus gene copies) of specific functional genes from bacteria (16S rRNA) and methanogenic archaea (*mcrA*) was consistent with the previously observed profiles of acetate consumption and CH₄ generation (Figure 1). The bacterial 16S rRNA expression ratio increased in time, reaching a maximum value at around day 11 that was maintained until the end of incubations at day 17 (Figure 2a). This maximum expression ratio was a 53% lower at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, in relation to that of 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (differences between 1.0 and 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹ were not significant). Despite the fact that the expression of ribosomal genes must be regarded as a global metabolic indicator for all bacteria, and so it cannot univocally be associated to the acetotrophic activity, it might partly explain the reduction in *rAc* that occurred at high ammonia concentrations (Table 1).

For the archaea, instead, a much more specific gene directly related to methanogenesis was targeted. The expression ratio of *mcrA* genes at low and intermediate ammonia concentrations (1.0 – 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹) was very similar (Figure 2b). The observed values

were rather low during the first 5 days of incubation but they sharply peaked at around day 11, to decrease again at day 17. Such unimodal profile fits the observed lag-phase in CH₄ production of approximately 6 days and the exponential phase in CH₄ accumulation that followed, before the declining phase that started shortly after day 11. Incubations with the highest ammonia concentration (6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹) resulted in a *mcrA* expression ratio that was a 83% lower than those at low and intermediate ammonia exposure (Figure 2b). As discussed previously, these batches showed the longest lag-phases and the lowest *r*CH₄ production, but similar CH₄ yields were eventually achieved.

Bacterial community structure and response to ammonia exposure

The microbial community structure from the most active period during the batch activity assays was assessed by high throughput DNA sequencing. A total of 440,756 and 224,133 high quality 16S rRNA ribosomal genes and transcripts (cDNA) reads were obtained for the *Bacteria* domain. These reads were grouped into operational taxonomic units (OTUs, defined at 97% sequence homology cut-off) and confidently assigned to specific taxa (Table 2). The Good's coverage estimator on the percentage of the total species (as OTUs) represented at any given sample was above 99%, indicating that the observed bacterial species encompassed most of the samples' populations. Species biodiversity (Shannon and inverted Simpson indexes) and richness (Chao1) were rather similar among samples, with an estimated number of species in the inoculum of 5,592. Species richness in active bacterial populations (cDNA ribotype libraries) was always lower than that corresponding to the present species (DNA ribotype libraries), but the biodiversity of the active population increased upon ammonia exposure. This indicates that an important proportion of the species from the inoculum were metabolically active under the tested conditions, and that ammonia triggered the response of an increasingly complex bacterial community.

The bacterial community structure, based on 16S rRNA gene counts, remained relatively stable during all assays regardless of the TAN concentration (Figure 3a). Representatives of the order *Anaerolineales* were predominant, with a relative gene abundance (RGA) of more than 40% in all assays. Other important groups included members of the orders *Clostridiales* (16% RGA) and *Bacteroidales* (9–12% RGA), the former being particularly relevant as it encompasses most of the recently described SAOB. In our previous metagenomic study (Ruiz-Sánchez et al., 2018) we suggested that members of phyla *Bacteroidetes*, along with *Chloroflexi*, might encompass yet undescribed SAOB.

In contrast with this stable microbial community structure, a population shift was observed in the active species when exposed to increasing ammonia concentrations. In terms of relative transcript abundance (RTA), members of the *Clostridiales* (22–26% RTA) and *Anaerolineales* (14–20% RTA) were among the most active communities. Other relevant metabolically active groups were found in the *Bacteroidales* (9–12% RTA), *Burkholderiales* (5–8% RTA), *Pseudomonadales* (5–7% RTA) and *Planctomycetales* (3% RTA). In contrast to these groups, which displayed little sensitivity to ammonia, *Sphingobacteriales* showed a clear negative correlation with the concentration of ammonia, so that their RTA decreased from 15% to 1% upon an ammonia supplementation from 1.0 to 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹.

The high throughput sequencing data from this study was also mined for the presence of well-known SAOB (Fotidis et al., 2013). OTUs homologous to the thermotolerant/thermophilic *Tepidanaerobacter acetatoxydans* and *Thermacetogenium phaeum* were detected, but in very low abundance and only in certain samples. Therefore, these particular thermophilic species played a minor role in the studied mesophilic reactor. Nevertheless, the proven hydrogenotrophy at relatively high TAN levels and the absence

of acetate accumulation, suggested that other non-described mesophilic SAO microbial communities must be active in the biomass.

The 16S rRNA gene expression ratio (transcripts to genes) at intermediate and high ammonia levels (3.5 and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹), in relation to that of the basal concentration (1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹) gives a further insight on the response of relevant bacterial species (as OTUs) to ammonia exposure (Figure 4). The highest expression shift along with increasing TAN concentrations was observed for a number of OTUs related to the genera *Thioalkalispira*, *Caulobacter*, *Bellilinea*, *Clostridium*, *Leptolinea*, *Bacteroides* and *Acetivibrio*; while representatives of the genera *Natronoanaerobium*, *Sphingobacterium*, and *Synergistes* appeared to be inhibited at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹. Individual BLAST searches from the sequences of the “ammonia-philic” OTUs yielded uncultured bacteria from a variety of anaerobic digesters that might have been exposed to relatively high ammonia levels (Table 3). Of particular interest is OTU1, which appears to be somewhat related to the genus *Longilinea* (94% sequence homology) and was by far the most abundant ammonia-responding OTU (30% in RTA). The second most active species (OTU2, 8% in RTA), also belonged to the class *Anaerolineae* (*Chloroflexi*), and displayed its highest similarity to a member of the genus *Leptolinea* (88% sequence homology). Four additional OTUs affiliated within the same class (genera *Levilinea* and *Bellilinea*) also increased their relative activity in the presence of ammonia, but their abundance was significantly lower. The class *Anaerolineae* was described in order to accommodate four new isolates originating from mesophilic UASB reactors (*Levilinea saccharolytica* and *Leptolinea tardivitalis*) (Yamada et al., 2006), a rice paddy soil (*Longilinea arvoryzae*), and a thermophilic digester (*Bellilinea caldifistulae*) (Yamada et al., 2007). They have relatively prolonged doubling times (45 – 92 h) and differ in their optimal temperature for growth, which could explain the low occurrence of the thermophilic *Bellilinea* in the mesophilic

reactor. Interestingly, *Longilinea* and *Bellilinea* share the fact that growth is enhanced in co-cultivation with hydrogenotrophic methanogens. Nevertheless, neither H₂/CO₂ nor acetate served as sole carbon sources for growth in pure cultures, so that their potential role as SAOB might be put into question.

A ribotype distantly related to *Bacteroides* (OTU3) could also have played a relevant role in the anaerobic digestion of nitrogen-rich substrates, given its relatively high expression level (8% RA of ribosomal transcripts). Despite poor phylogenetic definition, OTU3 exhibits a relatively high sequence similarity to several uncultured bacteria from anaerobic digesters, including an anaerobic sequencing batch reactor (SBR) treating swine waste at 4.9 g N-TAN L⁻¹ (Angenent et al., 2002). A number of unidentified clostridia (OTUs 7, 16, and 31) with a significant presence in the methanogenic biomass (>1%) increased their relative expression under high ammonia concentrations, and revealed high sequence similarity with ribotypes previously reported in other ammonia-rich anaerobic digesters. It could thus well be that some of the above mentioned OTUs correspond to yet undescribed SAOB.

Archaeal community structure and response to ammonia exposure

High throughput DNA sequencing of the *Archaea* yielded 401,486 genes and 444,516 transcript reads. As with the bacteria, the Good's coverage estimator for the archaea was above 99%, but the Chao1 estimator was one order of magnitude lower, with a predicted 414 archaeal species in the original inoculum. Both the biodiversity and number of active archaea were always lower than those corresponding to the present species (DNA ribotype libraries) so that, contrary on the bacteria, an increasing ammonia exposure generated a less diversified response of the archaeal community. The original methanogenic biomass (inoculum) was primarily composed by strict hydrogenotrophic

orders, such as *Methanomicrobiales* (*Methanoculleus*, 31% RGA) and *Methanobacteriales* (*Methanobrevibacter*, 26% RGA), but also the metabolically versatile *Methanosarcinales* (30% RGA), which encompasses both facultative and obligate acetotrophic genera (*Methanosarcina* and *Methanosaeta*). Representatives of the thermophilic chemolithoautotrophic ammonia oxidizing archaeon *Nitrosocaldus* were also present at a lower yet relevant abundance (7% RGA). Contrary to the bacteria, a significant population shift was observed for the archaea after incubations, in terms of gene counts (RGA), along with increasing ammonia concentrations. *Methanosaeta* decreased from 10% RGA at 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ to less than 3% at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, while representatives of *Methanomassiliicoccus* (order *Methanomassiliicoccales*) were enriched from 11% RGA (1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹) up to 31% RGA (6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹). This novel order of methyl-dependent hydrogenotrophic methanogens encompasses the former, recently reclassified, *Thermoplasmatales* (Adam et al., 2017; Borrel et al., 2014). Species from the *Methanomassiliicoccales* have recently been found in various anaerobic environments and are becoming an emerging research subject due to their scarcely known biology (Ziganshin et al., 2016).

The profiles of active archaea were rather similar at 1.0 and 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹, with *Methanosaeta* (48%–40% RTA) and *Methanoculleus*, (40%–47% RTA) as the most active genera (Figure 3b). *Methanoculleus* maintained a rather high level of gene expression regardless of ammonia exposure (about 45% RTA), but activity increased significantly for *Methanomassiliicoccus* (36% RTA) at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹. This finding further confirms that hydrogenotrophy had become the predominant methanogenic process at a high ammonia content, as seen previously from the isotopic fractionation profiles (Table 1). Furthermore, the extraordinary growth and activity levels of *Methanomassiliicoccus* indicates that this

particular taxon plays a vital role in the anaerobic digestion process under the tested high ammonia conditions and, therefore, it deserves further attention.

Recent genomic evidence points out to a number of physiological and metabolic features of the *Methanomassiliicoccales* that are relevant for this study. To start with, this order is characterized by the presence of quaternary ammonium efflux pumps (Borrel et al., 2014), which might explain why it thrived under high ammonia concentrations. They also lack the methyl-branch of the archaeal type Wood–Ljungdahl pathway and the coenzyme M methyltransferase complex (MTR), which makes them reliant on methyl-dependent hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (Adam et al., 2017). Interestingly, the *Methanomassiliicoccales* have the genetic capability of heterotrophic growth on acetate and, possibly, of synthesizing acetyl-CoA from formate and CO₂ (Lang et al., 2015). These findings are in agreement with metagenomic evidence that species in the *Methanomassiliicoccales* harbour several genes related to acetyl-CoA pathway (Campanaro et al., 2016). Species in this taxon might therefore be able to transform acetate to CO₂, but they also possess the *fhdA* gene encoding a glutathione-dependent formaldehyde dehydrogenase that transform formaldehyde to formate. Additionally, a recent study on the evolution of the bifunctional enzyme acetyl-CoA synthase/carbon monoxide dehydrogenase gene cluster (ACS/CODH) claimed that the *Methanomassiliicoccales* have a bacterial-type CODH, likely due to ancient interdomain transfer events (Adam et al., 2018). The CODH enzymes are used by aerobic and anaerobic carboxyotrophs to catalyze the reversible conversion between CO₂ and CO. Remarkably, in the *Methanomassiliicoccales*, these enzymes only function in the oxidative direction due to their inability of carbon fixation.

Hence, considering the relevance of the predominant OTUs affiliated to *Methanomassiliicoccales* from the present study, an *in silico* 16S rRNA assessment with

different databases (RDP, GreenGenes and BLAST) was performed. As a result, the affiliation of OTU4 to the *Methanomassiliicoccales*, and more specifically to the genus *Methanomassiliicoccus*, was confirmed. We propose a novel archaeal syntrophic association between species in the genus *Methanoculleus*, which have consistently been reported to prevail in ammonia-enriched anaerobic digesters dominated by the SAO process (Sun et al., 2014), and *Methanomassiliicoccus*. The latter would then acts as archaeal SAO, analogue to the known SAOB, by converting acetate to formate and/or CO₂, substrates that would then be consumed by *Methanoculleus*. The association between *Methanomassiliicoccus* and *Methanoculleus* has already been reported in an anaerobic digester treating food waste, where their dominance was strongly correlated with accumulation of VFA, increasing OLR, and concentration of ammonia (Li et al., 2018).

CONCLUSIONS

Biomass from a full-scale anaerobic digester adapted to relatively high ammonia concentrations was able to swiftly change its metabolic mode from acetotrophic to hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis upon increasing ammonia levels, by activating/deactivating specific microbial populations. Biological activity was negatively affected at the highest tested ammonia concentration (6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹), both in terms of CH₄ production and acetate consumption rates, as well as in relation to a decreasing expression level of bacteria and methanogenic archaea, but a similar CH₄ yield was eventually achieved with all tested nitrogen conditions.

In contrast to the bacterial community structure, which remained relatively stable during the experiments, important changes for the active species were observed in response to ammonia. Despite the strong evidence for the occurrence of the SAO process under high ammonia concentrations, none of the SAOB that are currently known from the literature

played a significant role in the studied biomass. However, several bacteria belonging to taxa that have previously been associated to acetate metabolism were stimulated upon ammonia exposure. Concerning the methanogenic archaea, the strictly acetotrophic genus *Methanosaeta* was among the most active under low ammonia concentrations (1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹). However, *Methanosaeta* quickly declined both in biomass abundance and in activity at higher ammonia levels, and was overtaken by representatives of the hydrogenotrophic genera *Methanoculleus* and *Methanomassiliicoccus*. Such archaeal association could be explained by the extraordinary metabolic flexibility and complementary of these two genera, which contribute to both acetotrophy and hydrogenotrophy.

Acknowledgements

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TABLE LEGENDS

Table 1. Results of the batch activity assays at different ammonia concentration in relation to the Specific rates of acetate consumption (r_{Ac}) and methane production (r_{CH_4}), lag phase, methane yield and the apparent fractionation factor (α_C). Depicted values correspond to the average and standard deviation of three independent replicates.

Table 2. Estimators of microbial species diversity/richness based on NGS of 16S rRNA genes and transcripts from the *Bacteria* and *Archaea* domains, obtained from the initial inoculum and after incubation during 11 and 17 days under increasing TAN concentrations. Predominant assigned genera (relative abundance > 5%) are also listed.

Table 3. Best match in BLAST searches (GenBank, NCBI, USA) on TAN-responding bacterial OTUs (see Figure 4). Only OTUs with a relative abundance in the original methanogenic biomass higher than 1% are listed.

LEGENDS TO FIGURES

Figure 1. Evolution of acetic acid (asterisks) and CH₄ (squares), both expressed as mg of COD equivalents, in batch reactors incubated at different TAN concentrations: (A) 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹; (B) 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹; and (C) 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹. The Gompertz equation (dashed line) was fitted to experimental methane yields (circles). Measured data are expressed as the average (sign) and the standard deviation (bars) of three independent batches.

Figure 2. Time-course quantitative PCR results from biomass samples of three independent batches incubated at 1.0, 3.5, and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (squares, circles, and triangles). The average (signs) and standard deviation (bars) of the ratio between number of transcripts and gene copies for the bacterial 16S rRNA (A) and the archaeal *mcrA* (B) has been depicted. Statistical significance in pairwise comparisons ($n=3$, $p<0.05$) in relation to the lowest ammonia exposure have been highlighted with an asterisk.

Figure 3. Relative abundance of bacterial (A) and archaeal (B) 16S rRNA genes and transcripts, expressed respectively at the order and genus phylogenetic level, in methanogenic batch reactors supplemented with increasing ammonia concentrations (1.0, 3.5, and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹), and after different incubation times (0, 11, and 17 days). Each bar represents the average of two independent batches.

Figure 4. Ratio between the relative expression level of bacterial 16S rRNA transcripts obtained in batch methanogenic assays incubated at 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (grey bar) and 6 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (black bar), in relation to that at 1 gN-TAN L⁻¹. Assigned taxon and OTU number (in brackets) are indicated. Only the species with a relative abundance higher than 0.3% have been depicted.

Table 1

TAN (gN L ⁻¹)	FAN ^a (mgN L ⁻¹)	r_{Ac} ^b (mgCOD gVSS ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	r_{CH_4} ^c (mgCOD gVSS ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lag phase ^c (d)	Methane yield ^c (mLCH ₄ gCOD ⁻¹)	αC ^d	Predominant methanogenic pathway ^d
1.0	114	16.80±0.42	13.61±0.25	6.37±0.15	238.41± 9.76	1.054±0.017	Acetotrophic
3.5	399	16.93±0.35	12.71±0.26*	6.28±0.13	245.63±13.54	1.077±0.001*	Hydrogenotrophic
6.0	683	9.10±0.35*	9.86±0.02*	10.17±0.10*	251.15± 2.21	1.080±0.000*	Exclusively hydrogenotrophic

^a Calculated from the ammonium/ammonia chemical equilibrium in water at pH = 8 and T = 37°C.

^b Measured empirically.

^c From the mathematical fitting to the Gompertz equation ($n=21$, $r^2>0.98$).

^d According to Conrad (2005).

* Statistically significant differences in relation to 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ ($n=3$, $p<0.05$).

Table 2

Parameter	Microbial group	Inoculum	1.0 g N-TAN L ⁻¹		3.5 g N-TAN L ⁻¹		6.0 g N-TAN L ⁻¹	
			Genes	Transcripts	Genes	Transcripts	Genes	Transcripts
No. of reads	Bacteria	217,432	85,745	53,318	68,355	112,479	69,224	58,836
	Archaea	193,179	54,798	134,018	68,513	141,590	84,996	168,908
No. of OTUs ^a	Bacteria	4,720	3,241	2,032	3,110	3,514	3,105	2538
	Archaea	373	282	183	325	185	211	201
Coverage ^b (%)	Bacteria	99.42	99.90	99.87	99.85	99.92	99.88	99.85
	Archaea	99.97	99.89	99.96	99.92	99.96	99.92	99.97
Shannon (diversity)	Bacteria	4.05	3.89	4.30	4.02	4.64	3.92	4.62
	Archaea	2.72	2.39	1.48	2.37	1.52	2.13	1.70
Simpson (diversity)	Bacteria	8.76	7.66	24.03	8.21	24.37	7.31	26.68
	Archaea	8.02	6.73	2.80	5.71	3.11	4.93	3.34
Chao1 (richness) ^c	Bacteria	5,592 (64)	5,047 (127)	3,364 (116)	4,927 (126)	4,516 (77)	4,974 (130)	3,760 (99)
	Archaea	414 (14)	362 (25)	258 (28)	383 (17)	272 (33)	338 (44)	243 (16)
Predominant genera (% relative abundance)	Bacteria	<i>Longilinea</i> (36) <i>Clostridium</i> (10) <i>Bacteroides</i> (9) <i>Leptolinea</i> (7)	<i>Longilinea</i> (39) <i>Leptolinea</i> (11) <i>Clostridium</i> (9) <i>Bacteroides</i> (6)	<i>Alkaliphilus</i> (13) <i>Sphingobacterium</i> (11) <i>Leptolinea</i> (9) <i>Levilinea</i> (6) <i>Mariniphaga</i> (6) <i>Synergistes</i> (6) <i>Pseudomonas</i> (6)	<i>Longilinea</i> (38) <i>Clostridium</i> (9) <i>Bacteroides</i> (8) <i>Leptolinea</i> (6)	<i>Alkaliphilus</i> (17) <i>Sphingobacterium</i> (11) <i>Leptolinea</i> (6) <i>Pseudomonas</i> (6) <i>Mariniphaga</i> (5)	<i>Longilinea</i> (40) <i>Bacteroides</i> (10) <i>Clostridium</i> (9) <i>Synergistes</i> (5)	<i>Alkaliphilus</i> (17) <i>Leptolinea</i> (8) <i>Pseudomonas</i> (7) <i>Symbiobacterium</i> (6) <i>Levilinea</i> (5) <i>Mariniphaga</i> (5)
	Archaea	<i>Methanoculleus</i> (31) <i>Methanobrevibacter</i> (26) <i>Methanosarcina</i> (20) <i>Methanosaeta</i> (10) <i>Nitrosocaldus</i> (7)	<i>Methanoculleus</i> (39) <i>Methanosarcina</i> (16) <i>Methanosaeta</i> (15) <i>Methanobrevibacter</i> (12) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (11)	<i>Methanosaeta</i> (48) <i>Methanoculleus</i> (40) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (7)	<i>Methanoculleus</i> (39) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (22) <i>Methanosarcina</i> (16) <i>Methanosaeta</i> (9) <i>Methanobrevibacter</i> (7)	<i>Methanosaeta</i> (40) <i>Methanoculleus</i> (47) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (9)	<i>Methanoculleus</i> (35) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (31) <i>Methanosarcina</i> (14) <i>Methanobrevibacter</i> (8)	<i>Methanoculleus</i> (45) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (36) <i>Methanosaeta</i> (10)

^a Observed number of species based on operational taxonomic units (at 97% sequence homology cut-off).

^b Good's estimator of coverage calculated as $(1 - (\text{singletons}/\text{reads})) \times 100$.

^c Estimated number of species average and standard deviation (between brackets).

Table 3

OTU nr	Identification ^a	Abundance (%)	Accession nr	H (%)	Source
1	<i>Longilinea</i>	30.31	JQ155218	99	Undefined full-scale anaerobic digester
2	<i>Leptolinea</i>	7.97	JQ104843	95	Undefined full-scale anaerobic digester
3	<i>Bacteroides</i>	7.67	GQ134121	99	Mesophilic anaerobic SBR treating swine waste (4.9 g N-TAN L ⁻¹)
6	<i>Levilinea saccharolytica</i>	1.15	EU407212	99	Household anaerobic digester
7	<i>Clostridium</i>	3.31	GQ995170	96	Mesophilic lab-scale anaerobic digester treating food industrial waste
12	<i>Acetivibrio</i>	1.45	GQ995163	99	Mesophilic lab-scale reactor treating food industrial waste
16	<i>Clostridium</i>	1.71	LN849648	99	Mesophilic lab-scale anaerobic digester reactor treating poultry manure
17	<i>Acholeplasma</i>	1.00	JN998160	99	Ammonium-stressed lab scale anaerobic digester
18	<i>Synergistes</i>	2.03	GQ134214	92	Mesophilic anaerobic SBR treating swine waste (1.0 g N-TAN L ⁻¹)
22	<i>Sterolibacterium denitrificans</i>	2.06	HM149064	92	Microbial fuel cell treating dairy wastewater
23	<i>Longilinea</i>	1.18	JQ104456	99	Undefined full-scale anaerobic digester
31	<i>Clostridium</i>	1.14	GQ136858	99	Mesophilic anaerobic SBR treating swine waste (5.2 g N-TAN L ⁻¹)
36	<i>Bacillus</i>	1.62	HQ183753	99	Undefined leachate sediment
2873	<i>Longilinea</i>	1.63	CU922827	98	Mesophilic anaerobic digester treating municipal wastewater sludge

^a According to the GreenGenes database.

Figure 1

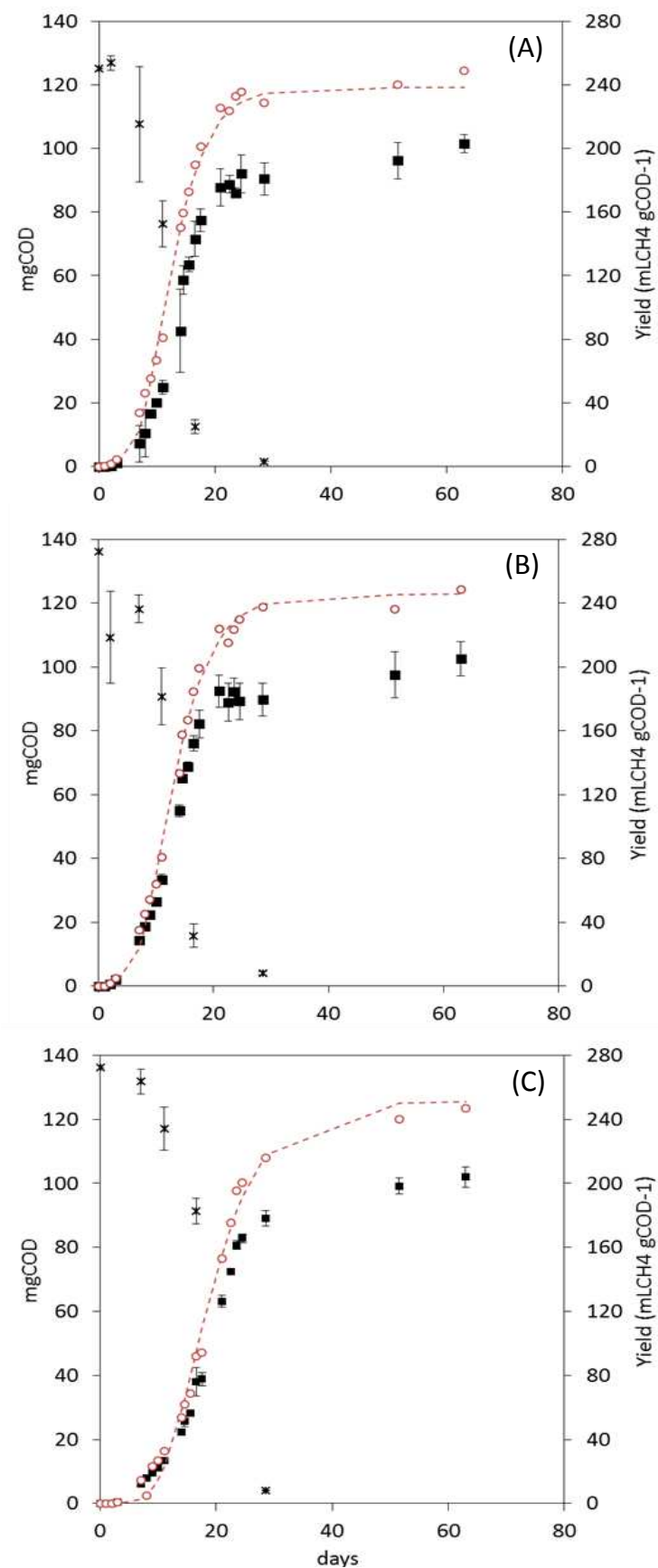


Figure 2

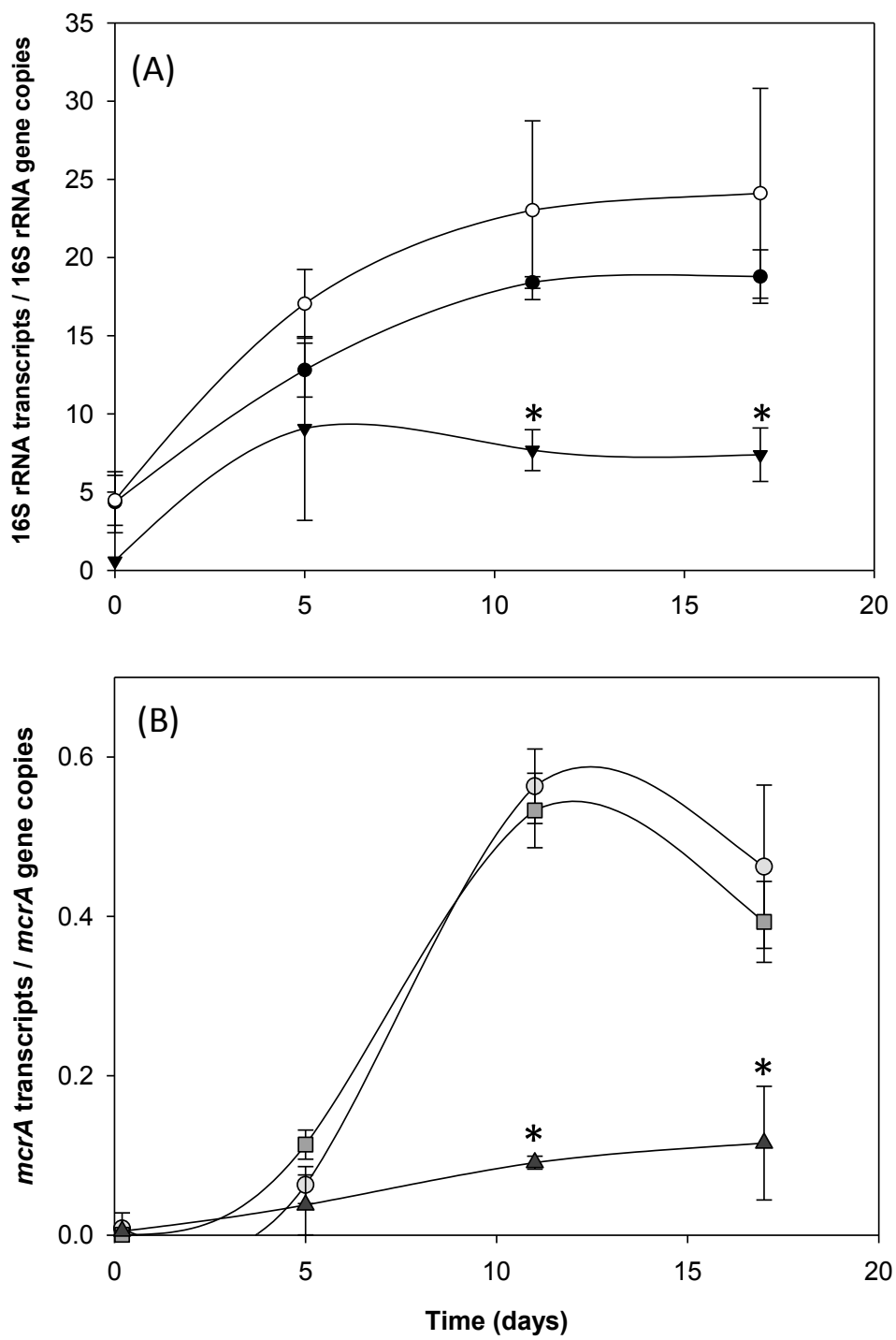


Figure 3

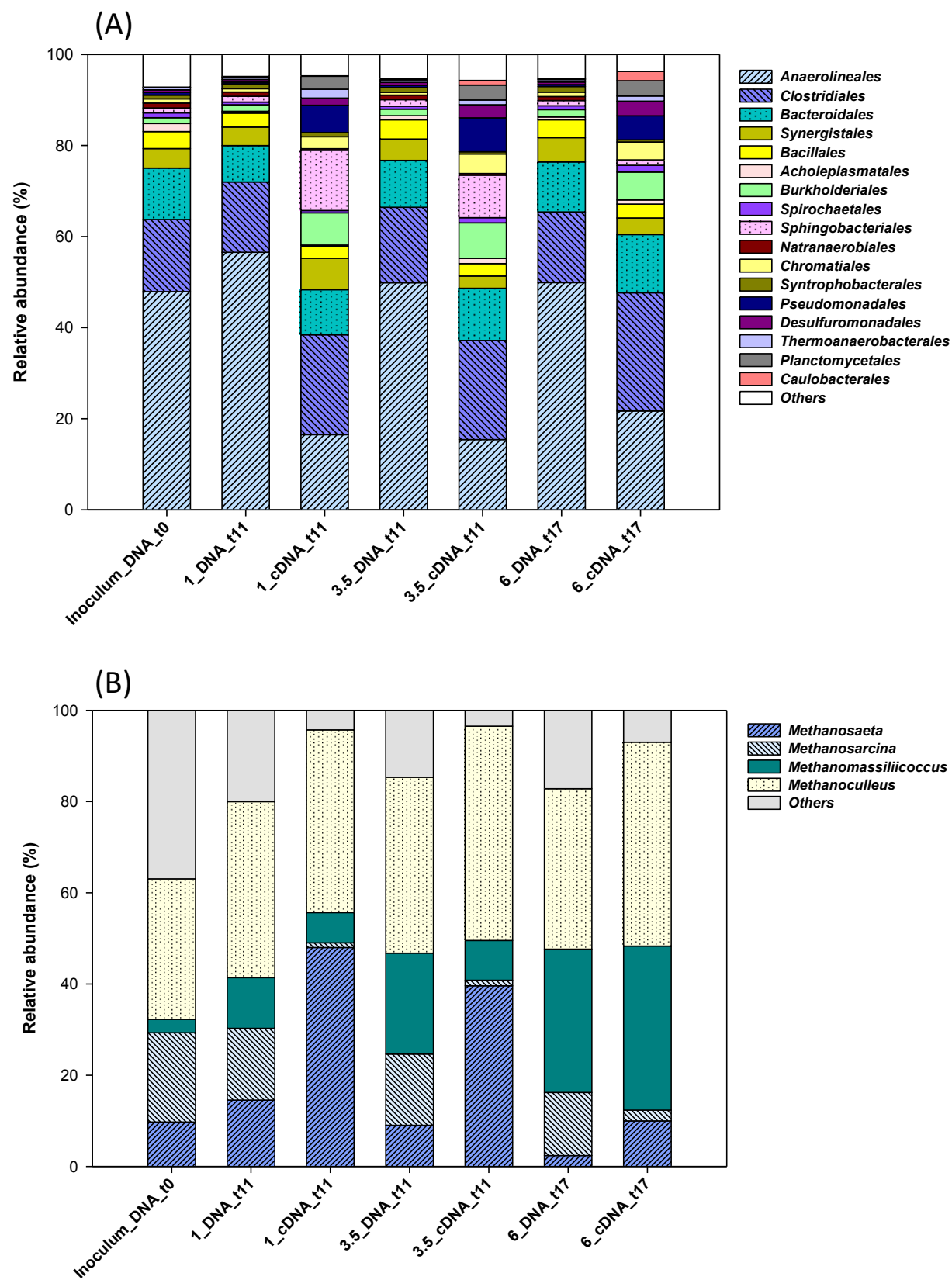
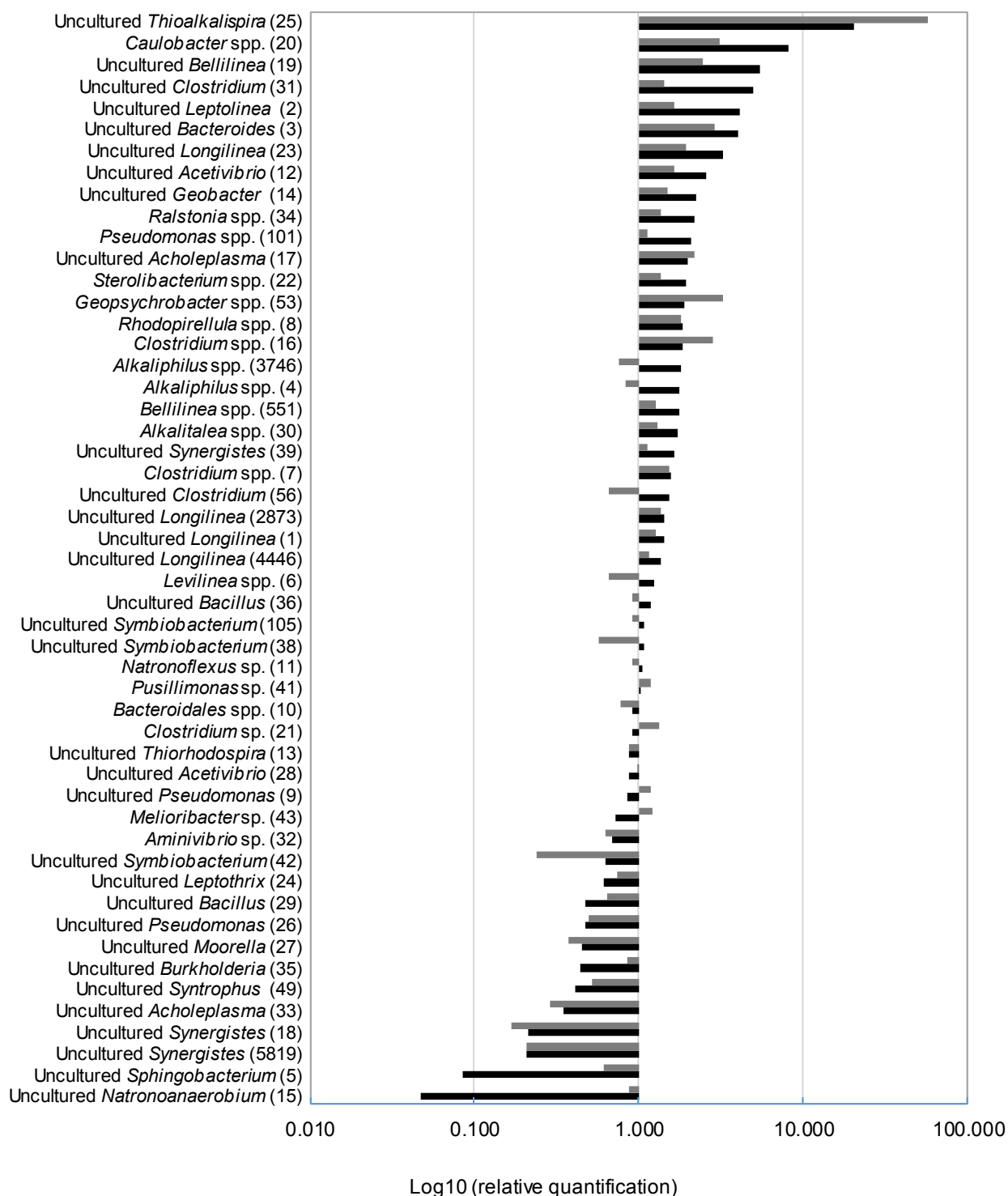
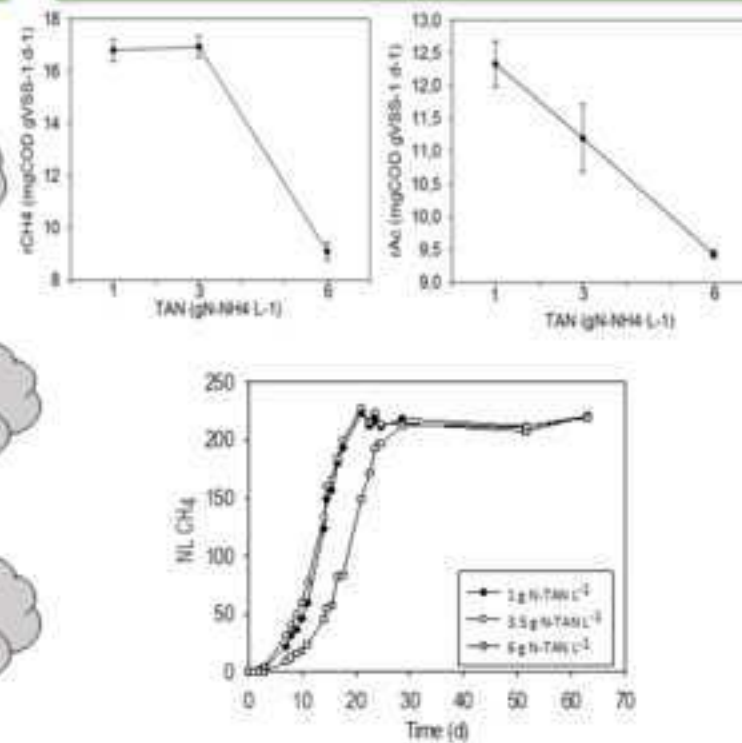
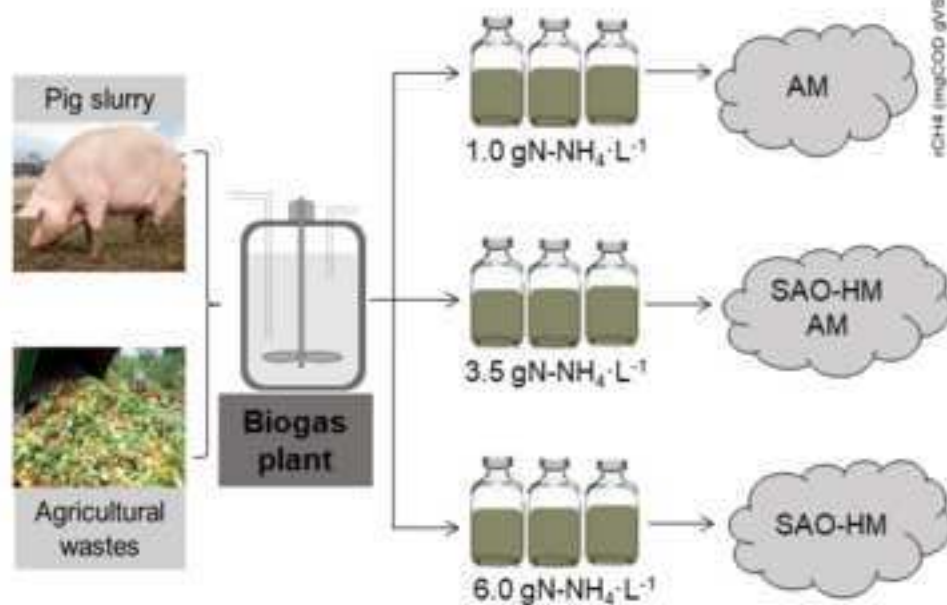


Figure 4



Biogas isotopic fractionation + Microbial analysis

Physicochemical analysis



*AM: Acetotrophic methanogenesis / HM: Hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis/ SAO: Syntrophic acetate oxidation

- N-adaptation of biomass in a full-scale digester ensued robust reactor performance
- NH_3 quickly shifted metabolism from acetotrophic to hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis
- Gene expression in several syntrophic bacteria was stimulated under high NH_3 exposure
- A novel archaeal *Methanoculleus* / *Methanomassiliicoccus* syntrophism is proposed
- The functional biodiversity of the SAO process still remains rather unexplored

**Functional biodiversity and plasticity of methanogenic biomass from a full-scale
mesophilic anaerobic digester treating nitrogen-rich agricultural wastes**

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Abstract

The effect of ammonia on methanogenic biomass from a full-scale agricultural digester treating nitrogen-rich materials was characterized in batch activity assays subjected to increasing concentrations of total ammonia N. Acetotrophic and methanogenic profiles displayed prolonged lag phases and reduced specific activity rates at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, though identical methane yields were ultimately reached. These results agreed with the expression levels of selected genes from bacteria and methanogenic archaea (qPCR of 16S rRNA and *mrcA* cDNA transcripts). Compound-specific isotope analysis of biogas indicated that ammonia exposure was associated to a transition in methanogenic activity from acetotrophy at 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ to intermediate and complete hydrogenotrophy at 3.5 and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹. Such pattern matched the results of 16S-Illumina sequencing of genes and transcripts in that predominant methanogens shifted, along with increasing ammonia, from the obligate acetotroph *Methanosaeta* to the hydrogenotrophic *Methanoculleus* and the poorly understood methylotrophic *Methanomassiliicoccus*. The underlying bacterial community structure remained rather stable but, at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, the expression level increased considerably for a number of ribotypes that are related to potentially syntrophic genera (e.g. *Clostridium*, *Bellilinea*, *Longilinea*, and *Bacteroides*). The predominance of hydrogenotrophy at high ammonia levels clearly points to the occurrence of the syntrophic acetate oxidation (SAO), but known SAO bacteria were only found in very low numbers. The potential role of the identified bacterial and archaeal taxa with a view on SAO and on stability of the anaerobic digestion process under ammonia stress has been discussed.

Keywords: Ammonia; anaerobic-digestion; active microbiome; C-isotopic biogas fractionation; syntrophic-acetate-oxidation (SAO).

INTRODUCTION

The anaerobic digestion (AD) of organic materials is a well-consolidated technology for the treatment and revalorization of organic waste into renewable energy (methane from biogas), and contributes significantly to the sustainability of several industrial processes (Lettinga, 2010). However, a significant proportion of the organic waste generated by the agrifood sector contains relatively large amounts of nitrogenated compounds (i.e. animal dejections, slaughterhouse by-products, and other protein-rich food-processing wastes). Organic nitrogen compounds are reduced to free ammonia (NH_3), often referred as free ammonia N (FAN), and its ionized counterpart ammonium (NH_4^+). In aqueous media, these two chemical species are in a pH and temperature-depending equilibrium. NH_3 is by far a stronger inhibitor of methanogenesis than NH_4^+ but, because of practical reasons, NH_3 and NH_4^+ are commonly measured together as total ammonia N (TAN) (Yenigün and Demirel, 2013). Such inhibitory effects might affect all microbial communities involved in the AD syntrophy, but the methanogenic archaea appear to be particularly sensitive to ammonia exposure (Demirel and Scherer, 2008). Yet, not all methanogens are affected equally; acetoclastic methanogenic archaea (AMA), which under common non-inhibitory conditions are responsible for most of the generated methane (CH_4), have been described to be vulnerable to relatively low concentrations of ammonia (circa $3.5 \text{ gN-TAN L}^{-1}$) (Banks et al., 2012; Schnürer and Nordberg, 2008). Conversely, the less sensitive hydrogenotrophic methanogenic archaea (HMA) are able to remain active at those concentrations, while reported ammonia inhibition thresholds are above 5 gN-TAN L^{-1} (Wang et al., 2015). Furthermore, AMA inhibition by ammonia might result in the accumulation of acetate up to inhibitory levels, thus contributing further to a negative feedback mechanism that eventually leads to complete reactor failure (Wang et al., 2015).

Under such high concentrations of ammonia and/or acetate, the so-called syntrophic acetate oxidizing bacteria (SAOB) are able to reverse the homoacetogenic pathway and convert acetate to carbon dioxide (CO₂) and hydrogen (H₂) (Schnürer et al., 1999). This process is thermodynamically favourable through the concomitant consumption of H₂ by HMA and, therefore, the syntrophic association between SAOB and HMA prevents the inhibition of methanogenesis during the AD of nitrogen-rich substrates (Petersen and Ahring, 1991). An increasing number of SAOB strains have been isolated in the recent years and their physiology and genetics have been characterized quite thoroughly, but information on the diversity, occurrence and role of SAOB in full-scale anaerobic digesters is still limited (Westerholm et al., 2016). In an earlier integrative study based on the metagenomic characterization of biomass and on the biogas isotopic profiling of different industrial anaerobic digesters, we pointed out at the predominance of both HMA communities and the hydrogenotrophic pathway in those digesters operated under relatively high nitrogen loads (Ruiz-Sánchez et al., 2018). These conditions are conducive to the enrichment of SAOB.

Here we aim at gaining a deeper insight into the microbial interactions, both of metabolically active bacterial and archaeal populations that are potentially involved in the SAO process. This new study focuses at the methanogenic biomass from an industrial anaerobic digester treating nitrogen-rich agricultural wastes with no previous records of process inhibition. A diversified research approach has been adopted for this purpose, which combined batch methanogenic activity assays under different ammonia contents, with Compound-Specific Isotope Analysis (CSIA) of ¹³C/¹²C natural isotopic fractionation of CH₄ and CO₂ in the generated biogas, and the in-depth characterization of present and metabolically active microbial populations by 16S-Illumina sequencing. The time-course

expression of relevant genes from bacteria (16S rRNA) and methanogenic archaea (methyl coenzyme M reductase; *mcrA*) was quantified by qPCR.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Batch experiments

Methanogenic biomass was collected from a 1,500 m³ full-scale completely stirred tank reactor (CSTR) for the anaerobic co-digestion of pig slurry and protein-rich agricultural wastes (Vilasana, Lleida, Spain). This digester was operated according to the following average parameters: total ammonia N (TAN) = 5.2 gN-TAN L⁻¹, chemical oxygen demand (COD) = 101.2 gO₂ L⁻¹, volatile suspended solids (VSS) = 61.2 g L⁻¹, pH = 8.3, acetate concentration = 0.0 gAc L⁻¹, hydraulic retention time (HRT) = 65 days, and temperature within the mesophilic regime. Experiments were conducted in triplicate batch cultures (120 mL total volume, 60 mL working volume, inoculated with 12.7 gVSS L⁻¹), containing 1.0, 3.5 or 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ by adding NH₄Cl and 2.36 gAc L⁻¹ as sodium acetate. Anaerobic conditions were generated by flushing N₂ during 10 min. Cultures were incubated at 37°C under rotatory shaking and a bicarbonate buffer solution was added to maintain a constant pH of 8 throughout the experiment. Control vials with neither acetate nor ammonia were included to assess the endogenous CH₄ production of the inoculum.

Specific rates of acetate consumption and CH₄ production were determined and expressed as gCOD gVSS⁻¹ d⁻¹ (conversion factors: 2.857 mgCOD mLCH₄⁻¹; 1.067 gCOD gAc⁻¹). For this purpose, samples of the liquid phase from each batch replicate (1 mL) were collected after 0, 7, 11 and 17 days of incubation and directly centrifuged (4°C, 20,000 rpm, 5 minutes). The supernatant (clarified fraction) was used for chemical analysis, while the pellets (sedimented fraction) were kept at -80°C until further processing via molecular biology tools. Samples from the headspace of each culture were taken

periodically for the characterization of the biogas composition during the experiment. CH_4 yield ($\text{mLCH}_4 \text{ gCOD}^{-1}$), lag phase and specific CH_4 production rate ($r\text{CH}_4$; $\text{mgCOD gVSS}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) were calculated after fitting the experimental data to the modified Gompertz equation. Samples of the accumulated biogas at the end of the incubation were collected for analysing the natural $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ isotopic fractionation of CH_4 and CO_2 . Gas/liquid volume changes due to sampling were taken into account in the calculation of mass balances.

Analytical methods

Total Kjeldhal Nitrogen (TKN), TAN and pH were determined according to the Standard Methods (APHA, 2005). The biogas was monitored along the experiment by sampling 100 μl from headspace of each batch. Biogas composition (CH_4 and CO_2) and the concentration of individual volatile fatty acids (VFA) in the liquid media, including acetic (Ac), propionic, butyric, valeric and caproic acids, were measured in a gas chromatograph (Varian CP-3800). This instrument was equipped with a Varian Hayesep-Q 80-100 mesh capillary column and a TCD detector for the analysis of biogas, or a TRB-FFAP capillary column and a FID detector for the analysis of VFA.

CSIA of $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ natural isotopic fractionation of biogas components was carried out by gas chromatography combustion–isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC–IRMS). An Agilent 6890 gas chromatograph was fitted with a split/splitless injector and coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Delta Plus Finnigan MAT) via a combustion interface (850°C), consisting of a 60 cm quartz tube (0.65 mm ID) filled with copper oxide. A liquid nitrogen cold trap was used to remove water. Separation was achieved on a Cpsil5CB (Chrompack) fused silica capillary column (60 m \times 0.32 mm; 0.12 μm film thickness) using He as carrier gas. The oven temperature was held at 40°C for 1 min, and increased to 320°C at a rate of $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$. This final temperature was maintained for 25 minutes.

Squalene was used as internal standard. Each sample was run in triplicate to ensure reproducibility within $\pm 0.2\%$ (1σ), relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) standard. All carbon isotopic ratios were expressed as ‰ relative to the VPDB standard, and the apparent fractionation factor (α_C) was determined according to Conrad et al., (2009). A α_C within the range of 1.040 – 1.055 corresponded to a predominantly acetotrophic AD process, while that of 1.055 – 1.080 was mainly hydrogenotrophic (Conrad, 2005; Penning and Conrad, 2007).

Molecular methods

Total genomic DNA and RNA from all previously centrifuged biomass samples (pellets) were simultaneously extracted by an adapted protocol of the PowerMicrobiome™ RNA Isolation kit (Qiagen). The RNA extracts were treated during 10 min at 25 °C with 10 units of DNase I to remove any contamination of genomic DNA, and directly subjected to a 16S rRNA-based PCR amplification to verify their purity (Prenafeta-Boldú et al., 2014). RNA extracts were subsequently transcribed to cDNA by means of PrimeScript™ RT reagent Kit (Perfect Real Time, Takara) following the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA and DNA extracts were kept frozen at –80 °C until further analysis.

Total and active bacterial populations and methanogenic archaea were quantified by means of qPCR amplification of 16S rRNA and *mcrA* genes, respectively (Sotres et al., 2014). Reactions were carried out using the Brilliant II SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix (Stratagene) on a Real-Time PCR System Mx3000P (Stratagene). The specificity of the qPCR amplifications was determined by observations of the corresponding melting curves and gel electrophoresis profiles. To prepare the corresponding standard curves two duplex DNA were synthesized (Metabion GmbH). Ten-fold serial dilutions of both standard genes

were subjected to qPCR assays in duplicate showing a linear response between 10^1 and 10^8 gene copy numbers. The qPCR standards for both genes fitted quality standards with amplification efficiencies between 90 and 110% and R^2 above 0.985. All results were processed by the MxPro™ QPCR software (Stratagene). All results obtained from triplicate independent batches were treated statistically. The Shapiro-Wilk test was performed to determine whether data were normally distributed. Considering the paired structure and normal distribution of the data, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. The combination of factors were the sampling time (0, 7, 11 and 17 days) and the TAN treatments (1.0, 3.5 and 6.0 gN-TAN). Subsequently, pairwise comparisons Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) were applied to test differences between batches by sampling periods. The significance threshold was established at 0.05 type I error. All statistical analysis were performed by means of XLSTAT 2018 software (Addinsoft) and SigmaPlot 11.0 software.

The time course evolution of methanogenic activity and expression of 16S rRNA and *mcrA* genes determined the sampling periods for high throughput sequencing. The microbial community structure was characterized by 16S-Illumina sequencing analysis after 11 and 17 days, respectively for batches exposed to 1.0, 3.5, and 6.0 gN-TAN L^{-1} , when the maximum CH_4 production rates and gene expression level was recorded (Figures 1 and 2). Microbial diversity in the bacteria and archaea domains was assessed in duplicate by means of 16S rRNA Illumina (MiSeq) high-throughput sequencing as described previously (Pelissari et al., 2017). The obtained DNA and cDNA reads were compiled in FASTq files for further bioinformatic processing. Trimming of the 16S rRNA barcoded sequences into libraries was carried out using the QIIME software version 1.8.0 and quality filtering of the reads was performed at Q25, prior to their grouping into Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) at a 97% sequence homology cut-off. OTUs were then taxonomically classified

using the RDP Naïve Bayesian Classifier (2.2) with a bootstrap cut-off value of 80%, and compiled to each taxonomic level.

The number of observed OTUs, Goods coverage, alpha biodiversity parameters (the inverted Simpson and Shannon indexes), and species richness (Chao1 estimator) were calculated using the Mothur software v.1.35.9 (<http://www.mothur.org>). The number of reads were rarefacted to the lowest number among the different samples. The sequence data from the MiSeq NGS assessment were submitted to the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) of the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) under the study accession number PRJNA385091.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Batch incubation experiments

Methanogenic activity assays

The time-course evolution of acetate and CH₄ was monitored at low, intermediate and high ammonia exposure (1.0, 3.5, and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹) in batches that were inoculated with freshly collected biomass from the studied agricultural anaerobic digester (Figure 1). The estimated FAN concentrations at the tested intermediate and high ammonia exposure were above the inhibitory threshold for methanogenesis (Table 1), considering that values as low as 250 mg L⁻¹ have been found to impair the anaerobic digestion process with unacclimated biomass (Yenigün and Demirel, 2013). The specific acetate uptake rate (*r*Ac) was similar up to 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹ but it decreased by 46% at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (Table 1). The impact of ammonia on methanogenesis was also significant since the CH₄ production rate (*r*CH₄) decreased by 26% and 31% upon ammonia exposure at 3.5 and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, with respect to the *r*CH₄ at 1 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (Table 1). This apparent **higher** vulnerability of acetate-utilizing microorganisms might be the result of the well-known susceptibility of

AMA to ammonia (Hunik et al., 1990). Under such conditions, acetate might also be consumed by the SAOB but this metabolic process has been associated to relatively low conversion rates (Sun et al., 2014). Along with a high ammonia content, those digesters were often characterized by a prolonged biomass retention time and thermophilic temperature, parameters that have been identified as crucial for the enrichment of the rather slow-growing SAO microbial communities (Sun et al., 2014). However, despite the lower metabolic rates under high ammonia concentrations, all tested batches reached a similar CH₄ yield and more than the 80% of the added acetate was eventually recovered as CH₄ in terms of COD equivalents.

Isotopic fractionation of biogas

Most of the previous studies on the application of isotopic analysis of biogas for the characterization of anaerobic digesters subjected to high ammonia levels were based on using radioactive (Karakashev et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2014) or stable (Mulat et al., 2014) isotope-labelling at the acetate methyl group. The protocol implemented in this study based on CSIA of ¹³C/¹²C natural isotopic fractionation provided a deeper insight on the methanogenic pathways, without the need of using expensive and/or dangerous labelled substrates. The apparent fractionation factor α_C as defined by Whiticar and Faber (1986) from the measured δCH_4 and δCO_2 , and later reviewed by (Conrad et al., 2009) was used. This factor indicates that environments with a $\alpha_C < 1.055$ are dominated by AMA, while those with a $\alpha_C > 1.065$ point to the predominance of HMA (up to exclusive hydrogenotrophy at $\alpha_C = 1.085$). From the α_C values calculated in the present study, it can be concluded that increasing the ammonia content prompted a metabolic shift in methanogenesis from AMA at 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ to a HMA activity that was predominant at 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹, and even exclusive at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (Table 1). This shift from acetotrophic to hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis is consistent with previous observations

from anaerobic digesters under increasing ammonia concentrations (Wang et al., 2015). Concurrent prevalence of hydrogenotrophy along with consumption of acetate (added as the sole electron source), strongly supports the hypothesis that biomass from the studied anaerobic digester contained SAO species that were active under a relatively high ammonia content. Furthermore, these results also indicate that, despite its previous history of acclimation and adaptation to high nitrogen loads, the methanogenic biomass was still able to modulate the metabolism towards acetotrophy when exposed to low concentrations of ammonia.

Microbial community analysis

Quantitative expression profile of selected functional genes

The effect of ammonia on the expression ratio (qPCR quantification of transcripts versus gene copies) of specific functional genes from bacteria (16S rRNA) and methanogenic archaea (*mcrA*) was consistent with the previously observed profiles of acetate consumption and CH₄ generation (Figure 1). The bacterial 16S rRNA expression ratio increased in time, reaching a maximum value at around day 11 that was maintained until the end of incubations at day 17 (Figure 2a). This maximum expression ratio was a 53% lower at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, in relation to that of 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (differences between 1.0 and 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹ were not significant). Despite the fact that the expression of ribosomal genes must be regarded as a global metabolic indicator for all bacteria, and so it cannot univocally be associated to the acetotrophic activity, it might partly explain the reduction in *rAc* that occurred at high ammonia concentrations (Table 1).

For the archaea, instead, a much more specific gene directly related to methanogenesis was targeted. The expression ratio of *mcrA* genes at low and intermediate ammonia concentrations (1.0 – 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹) was very similar (Figure 2b). The observed values

were rather low during the first 5 days of incubation but they sharply peaked at around day 11, to decrease again at day 17. Such unimodal profile fits the observed lag-phase in CH₄ production of approximately 6 days and the exponential phase in CH₄ accumulation that followed, before the declining phase that started shortly after day 11. Incubations with the highest ammonia concentration (6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹) resulted in a *mcrA* expression ratio that was a 83% lower than those at low and intermediate ammonia exposure (Figure 2b). As discussed previously, these batches showed the longest lag-phases and the lowest *r*CH₄ production, but similar CH₄ yields were eventually achieved.

Bacterial community structure and response to ammonia exposure

The microbial community structure from the most active period during the batch activity assays was assessed by high throughput DNA sequencing. A total of 440,756 and 224,133 high quality 16S rRNA ribosomal genes and transcripts (cDNA) reads were obtained for the *Bacteria* domain. These reads were grouped into operational taxonomic units (OTUs, defined at 97% sequence homology cut-off) and confidently assigned to specific taxa (Table 2). The Good's coverage estimator on the percentage of the total species (as OTUs) represented at any given sample was above 99%, indicating that the observed bacterial species encompassed most of the samples' populations. Species biodiversity (Shannon and inverted Simpson indexes) and richness (Chao1) were rather similar among samples, with an estimated number of species in the inoculum of 5,592. Species richness in active bacterial populations (cDNA ribotype libraries) was always lower than that corresponding to the present species (DNA ribotype libraries), but the biodiversity of the active population increased upon ammonia exposure. This indicates that an important proportion of the species from the inoculum were metabolically active under the tested conditions, and that ammonia triggered the response of an increasingly complex bacterial community.

The bacterial community structure, based on 16S rRNA gene counts, remained relatively stable during all assays regardless of the TAN concentration (Figure 3a). Representatives of the order *Anaerolineales* were predominant, with a relative gene abundance (RGA) of more than 40% in all assays. Other important groups included members of the orders *Clostridiales* (16% RGA) and *Bacteroidales* (9–12% RGA), the former being particularly relevant as it encompasses most of the recently described SAOB. In our previous metagenomic study (Ruiz-Sánchez et al., 2018) we suggested that members of phyla *Bacteroidetes*, along with *Chloroflexi*, might encompass yet undescribed SAOB.

In contrast with this stable microbial community structure, a population shift was observed in the active species when exposed to increasing ammonia concentrations. In terms of relative transcript abundance (RTA), members of the *Clostridiales* (22–26% RTA) and *Anaerolineales* (14–20% RTA) were among the most active communities. Other relevant metabolically active groups were found in the *Bacteroidales* (9–12% RTA), *Burkholderiales* (5–8% RTA), *Pseudomonadales* (5–7% RTA) and *Planctomycetales* (3% RTA). In contrast to these groups, which displayed little sensitivity to ammonia, *Sphingobacteriales* showed a clear negative correlation with the concentration of ammonia, so that their RTA decreased from 15% to 1% upon an ammonia supplementation from 1.0 to 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹.

The high throughput sequencing data from this study was also mined for the presence of well-known SAOB (Fotidis et al., 2013). OTUs homologous to the thermotolerant/thermophilic *Tepidanaerobacter acetatoxydans* and *Thermacetogenium phaeum* were detected, but in very low abundance and only in certain samples. Therefore, these particular thermophilic species played a minor role in the studied mesophilic reactor. Nevertheless, the proven hydrogenotrophy at relatively high TAN levels and the absence

of acetate accumulation, suggested that other non-described mesophilic SAO microbial communities must be active in the biomass.

The 16S rRNA gene expression ratio (transcripts to genes) at intermediate and high ammonia levels (3.5 and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹), in relation to that of the basal concentration (1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹) gives a further insight on the response of relevant bacterial species (as OTUs) to ammonia exposure (Figure 4). The highest expression shift along with increasing TAN concentrations was observed for a number of OTUs related to the genera *Thioalkalispira*, *Caulobacter*, *Bellilinea*, *Clostridium*, *Leptolinea*, *Bacteroides* and *Acetivibrio*; while representatives of the genera *Natronoanaerobium*, *Sphingobacterium*, and *Synergistes* appeared to be inhibited at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹. Individual BLAST searches from the sequences of the “ammonia-philic” OTUs yielded uncultured bacteria from a variety of anaerobic digesters that might have been exposed to relatively high ammonia levels (Table 3). Of particular interest is OTU1, which appears to be somewhat related to the genus *Longilinea* (94% sequence homology) and was by far the most abundant ammonia-responding OTU (30% in RTA). The second most active species (OTU2, 8% in RTA), also belonged to the class *Anaerolineae* (*Chloroflexi*), and displayed its highest similarity to a member of the genus *Leptolinea* (88% sequence homology). Four additional OTUs affiliated within the same class (genera *Levilinea* and *Bellilinea*) also increased their relative activity in the presence of ammonia, but their abundance was significantly lower. The class *Anaerolineae* was described in order to accommodate four new isolates originating from mesophilic UASB reactors (*Levilinea saccharolytica* and *Leptolinea tardivitalis*) (Yamada et al., 2006), a rice paddy soil (*Longilinea arvoryzae*), and a thermophilic digester (*Bellilinea caldifistulae*) (Yamada et al., 2007). They have relatively prolonged doubling times (45 – 92 h) and differ in their optimal temperature for growth, which could explain the low occurrence of the thermophilic *Bellilinea* in the mesophilic

reactor. Interestingly, *Longilinea* and *Bellilinea* share the fact that growth is enhanced in co-cultivation with hydrogenotrophic methanogens. Nevertheless, neither H₂/CO₂ nor acetate served as sole carbon sources for growth in pure cultures, so that their potential role as SAOB might be put into question.

A ribotype distantly related to *Bacteroides* (OTU3) could also have played a relevant role in the anaerobic digestion of nitrogen-rich substrates, given its relatively high expression level (8% RA of ribosomal transcripts). Despite poor phylogenetic definition, OTU3 exhibits a relatively high sequence similarity to several uncultured bacteria from anaerobic digesters, including an anaerobic sequencing batch reactor (SBR) treating swine waste at 4.9 g N-TAN L⁻¹ (Angenent et al., 2002). A number of unidentified clostridia (OTUs 7, 16, and 31) with a significant presence in the methanogenic biomass (>1%) increased their relative expression under high ammonia concentrations, and revealed high sequence similarity with ribotypes previously reported in other ammonia-rich anaerobic digesters. It could thus well be that some of the above mentioned OTUs correspond to yet undescribed SAOB.

Archaeal community structure and response to ammonia exposure

High throughput DNA sequencing of the *Archaea* yielded 401,486 genes and 444,516 transcript reads. As with the bacteria, the Good's coverage estimator for the archaea was above 99%, but the Chao1 estimator was one order of magnitude lower, with a predicted 414 archaeal species in the original inoculum. Both the biodiversity and number of active archaea were always lower than those corresponding to the present species (DNA ribotype libraries) so that, contrary on the bacteria, an increasing ammonia exposure generated a less diversified response of the archaeal community. The original methanogenic biomass (inoculum) was primarily composed by strict hydrogenotrophic

orders, such as *Methanomicrobiales* (*Methanoculleus*, 31% RGA) and *Methanobacteriales* (*Methanobrevibacter*, 26% RGA), but also the metabolically versatile *Methanosarcinales* (30% RGA), which encompasses both facultative and obligate acetotrophic genera (*Methanosarcina* and *Methanosaeta*). Representatives of the thermophilic chemolithoautotrophic ammonia oxidizing archaeon *Nitrosocaldus* were also present at a lower yet relevant abundance (7% RGA). Contrary to the bacteria, a significant population shift was observed for the archaea after incubations, in terms of gene counts (RGA), along with increasing ammonia concentrations. *Methanosaeta* decreased from 10% RGA at 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ to less than 3% at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹, while representatives of *Methanomassiliicoccus* (order *Methanomassiliicoccales*) were enriched from 11% RGA (1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹) up to 31% RGA (6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹). This novel order of methyl-dependent hydrogenotrophic methanogens encompasses the former, recently reclassified, *Thermoplasmatales* (Adam et al., 2017; Borrel et al., 2014). Species from the *Methanomassiliicoccales* have recently been found in various anaerobic environments and are becoming an emerging research subject due to their scarcely known biology (Ziganshin et al., 2016).

The profiles of active archaea were rather similar at 1.0 and 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹, with *Methanosaeta* (48%–40% RTA) and *Methanoculleus*, (40%–47% RTA) as the most active genera (Figure 3b). *Methanoculleus* maintained a rather high level of gene expression regardless of ammonia exposure (about 45% RTA), but activity increased significantly for *Methanomassiliicoccus* (36% RTA) at 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹. This finding further confirms that hydrogenotrophy had become the predominant methanogenic process at a high ammonia content, as seen previously from the isotopic fractionation profiles (Table 1). Furthermore, the extraordinary growth and activity levels of *Methanomassiliicoccus* indicates that this

particular taxon plays a vital role in the anaerobic digestion process under the tested high ammonia conditions and, therefore, it deserves further attention.

Recent genomic evidence points out to a number of physiological and metabolic features of the *Methanomassiliicoccales* that are relevant for this study. To start with, this order is characterized by the presence of quaternary ammonium efflux pumps (Borrel et al., 2014), which might explain why it thrived under high ammonia concentrations. They also lack the methyl-branch of the archaeal type Wood–Ljungdahl pathway and the coenzyme M methyltransferase complex (MTR), which makes them reliant on methyl-dependent hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (Adam et al., 2017). Interestingly, the *Methanomassiliicoccales* have the genetic capability of heterotrophic growth on acetate and, possibly, of synthesizing acetyl-CoA from formate and CO₂ (Lang et al., 2015). These findings are in agreement with metagenomic evidence that species in the *Methanomassilicoccales* harbour several genes related to acetyl-CoA pathway (Campanaro et al., 2016). Species in this taxon might therefore be able to transform acetate to CO₂, but they also possess the *fhdA* gene encoding a glutathione-dependent formaldehyde dehydrogenase that transform formaldehyde to formate. Additionally, a recent study on the evolution of the bifunctional enzyme acetyl-CoA synthase/carbon monoxide dehydrogenase gene cluster (ACS/CODH) claimed that the *Methanomassiliicoccales* have a bacterial-type CODH, likely due to ancient interdomain transfer events (Adam et al., 2018). The CODH enzymes are used by aerobic and anaerobic carboxyotrophs to catalyze the reversible conversion between CO₂ and CO. Remarkably, in the *Methanomassiliicoccales*, these enzymes only function in the oxidative direction due to their inability of carbon fixation.

Hence, considering the relevance of the predominant OTUs affiliated to *Methanomassilicoccales* from the present study, an *in silico* 16S rRNA assessment with

different databases (RDP, GreenGenes and BLAST) was performed. As a result, the affiliation of OTU4 to the *Methanomassiliicoccales*, and more specifically to the genus *Methanomassiliicoccus*, was confirmed. We propose a novel archaeal syntrophic association between species in the genus *Methanoculleus*, which have consistently been reported to prevail in ammonia-enriched anaerobic digesters dominated by the SAO process (Sun et al., 2014), and *Methanomassiliicoccus*. The latter would then acts as archaeal SAO, analogue to the known SAOB, by converting acetate to formate and/or CO₂, substrates that would then be consumed by *Methanoculleus*. The association between *Methanomassiliicoccus* and *Methanoculleus* has already been reported in an anaerobic digester treating food waste, where their dominance was strongly correlated with accumulation of VFA, increasing OLR, and concentration of ammonia (Li et al., 2018).

CONCLUSIONS

Biomass from a full-scale anaerobic digester adapted to relatively high ammonia concentrations was able to swiftly change its metabolic mode from acetotrophic to hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis upon increasing ammonia levels, by activating/deactivating specific microbial populations. Biological activity was negatively affected at the highest tested ammonia concentration (6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹), both in terms of CH₄ production and acetate consumption rates, as well as in relation to a decreasing expression level of bacteria and methanogenic archaea, but a similar CH₄ yield was eventually achieved with all tested nitrogen conditions.

In contrast to the bacterial community structure, which remained relatively stable during the experiments, important changes for the active species were observed in response to ammonia. Despite the strong evidence for the occurrence of the SAO process under high ammonia concentrations, none of the SAOB that are currently known from the literature

played a significant role in the studied biomass. However, several bacteria belonging to taxa that have previously been associated to acetate metabolism were stimulated upon ammonia exposure. Concerning the methanogenic archaea, the strictly acetotrophic genus *Methanosaeta* was among the most active under low ammonia concentrations (1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹). However, *Methanosaeta* quickly declined both in biomass abundance and in activity at higher ammonia levels, and was overtaken by representatives of the hydrogenotrophic genera *Methanoculleus* and *Methanomassiliicoccus*. Such archaeal association could be explained by the extraordinary metabolic flexibility and complementary of these two genera, which contribute to both acetotrophy and hydrogenotrophy.

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TABLE LEGENDS

Table 1. Results of the batch activity assays at different ammonia concentration in relation to the Specific rates of acetate consumption (r_{Ac}) and methane production (r_{CH_4}), lag phase, methane yield and the apparent fractionation factor (α_C). Depicted values correspond to the average and standard deviation of three independent replicates.

Table 2. Estimators of microbial species diversity/richness based on NGS of 16S rRNA genes and transcripts from the *Bacteria* and *Archaea* domains, obtained from the initial inoculum and after incubation during 11 and 17 days under increasing TAN concentrations. Predominant assigned genera (relative abundance > 5%) are also listed.

Table 3. Best match in BLAST searches (GenBank, NCBI, USA) on TAN-responding bacterial OTUs (see Figure 4). Only OTUs with a relative abundance in the original methanogenic biomass higher than 1% are listed.

LEGENDS TO FIGURES

Figure 1. Evolution of acetic acid (asterisks) and CH₄ (squares), both expressed as mg of COD equivalents, in batch reactors incubated at different TAN concentrations: (A) 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹; (B) 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹; and (C) 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹. The Gompertz equation (dashed line) was fitted to experimental methane yields (circles). Measured data are expressed as the average (sign) and the standard deviation (bars) of three independent batches.

Figure 2. Time-course quantitative PCR results from biomass samples of three independent batches incubated at 1.0, 3.5, and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (squares, circles, and triangles). The average (signs) and standard deviation (bars) of the ratio between number of transcripts and gene copies for the bacterial 16S rRNA (A) and the archaeal *mcrA* (B) has been depicted. Statistical significance in pairwise comparisons ($n=3$, $p<0.05$) in relation to the lowest ammonia exposure have been highlighted with an asterisk.

Figure 3. Relative abundance of bacterial (A) and archaeal (B) 16S rRNA genes and transcripts, expressed respectively at the order and genus phylogenetic level, in methanogenic batch reactors supplemented with increasing ammonia concentrations (1.0, 3.5, and 6.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹), and after different incubation times (0, 11, and 17 days). Each bar represents the average of two independent batches.

Figure 4. Ratio between the relative expression level of bacterial 16S rRNA transcripts obtained in batch methanogenic assays incubated at 3.5 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (grey bar) and 6 gN-TAN L⁻¹ (black bar), in relation to that at 1 gN-TAN L⁻¹. Assigned taxon and OTU number (in brackets) are indicated. Only the species with a relative abundance higher than 0.3% have been depicted.

Table 1

TAN (gN L ⁻¹)	FAN ^a (mgN L ⁻¹)	r_{Ac} ^b (mgCOD gVSS ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	r_{CH_4} ^c (mgCOD gVSS ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lag phase ^c (d)	Methane yield ^c (mLCH ₄ gCOD ⁻¹)	αC ^d	Predominant methanogenic pathway ^d
1.0	114	16.80±0.42	13.61±0.25	6.37±0.15	238.41± 9.76	1.054±0.017	Acetotrophic
3.5	399	16.93±0.35	12.71±0.26*	6.28±0.13	245.63±13.54	1.077±0.001*	Hydrogenotrophic
6.0	683	9.10±0.35*	9.86±0.02*	10.17±0.10*	251.15± 2.21	1.080±0.000*	Exclusively hydrogenotrophic

^a Calculated from the ammonium/ammonia chemical equilibrium in water at pH = 8 and T = 37°C.

^b Measured empirically.

^c From the mathematical fitting to the Gompertz equation ($n=21$, $r^2>0.98$).

^d According to Conrad (2005).

* Statistically significant differences in relation to 1.0 gN-TAN L⁻¹ ($n=3$, $p<0.05$).

Table 2

Parameter	Microbial group	Inoculum	1.0 g N-TAN L ⁻¹		3.5 g N-TAN L ⁻¹		6.0 g N-TAN L ⁻¹	
			Genes	Transcripts	Genes	Transcripts	Genes	Transcripts
No. of reads	Bacteria	217,432	85,745	53,318	68,355	112,479	69,224	58,836
	Archaea	193,179	54,798	134,018	68,513	141,590	84,996	168,908
No. of OTUs ^a	Bacteria	4,720	3,241	2,032	3,110	3,514	3,105	2538
	Archaea	373	282	183	325	185	211	201
Coverage ^b (%)	Bacteria	99.42	99.90	99.87	99.85	99.92	99.88	99.85
	Archaea	99.97	99.89	99.96	99.92	99.96	99.92	99.97
Shannon (diversity)	Bacteria	4.05	3.89	4.30	4.02	4.64	3.92	4.62
	Archaea	2.72	2.39	1.48	2.37	1.52	2.13	1.70
Simpson (diversity)	Bacteria	8.76	7.66	24.03	8.21	24.37	7.31	26.68
	Archaea	8.02	6.73	2.80	5.71	3.11	4.93	3.34
Chao1 (richness) ^c	Bacteria	5,592 (64)	5,047 (127)	3,364 (116)	4,927 (126)	4,516 (77)	4,974 (130)	3,760 (99)
	Archaea	414 (14)	362 (25)	258 (28)	383 (17)	272 (33)	338 (44)	243 (16)
Predominant genera (% relative abundance)	Bacteria	<i>Longilinea</i> (36) <i>Clostridium</i> (10) <i>Bacteroides</i> (9) <i>Leptolinea</i> (7)	<i>Longilinea</i> (39) <i>Leptolinea</i> (11) <i>Clostridium</i> (9) <i>Bacteroides</i> (6)	<i>Alkaliphilus</i> (13) <i>Sphingobacterium</i> (11) <i>Leptolinea</i> (9) <i>Levilinea</i> (6) <i>Mariniphaga</i> (6) <i>Synergistes</i> (6) <i>Pseudomonas</i> (6)	<i>Longilinea</i> (38) <i>Clostridium</i> (9) <i>Bacteroides</i> (8) <i>Leptolinea</i> (6)	<i>Alkaliphilus</i> (17) <i>Sphingobacterium</i> (11) <i>Leptolinea</i> (6) <i>Pseudomonas</i> (6) <i>Mariniphaga</i> (5)	<i>Longilinea</i> (40) <i>Bacteroides</i> (10) <i>Clostridium</i> (9) <i>Synergistes</i> (5)	<i>Alkaliphilus</i> (17) <i>Leptolinea</i> (8) <i>Pseudomonas</i> (7) <i>Symbiobacterium</i> (6) <i>Levilinea</i> (5) <i>Mariniphaga</i> (5)
	Archaea	<i>Methanoculleus</i> (31) <i>Methanobrevibacter</i> (26) <i>Methanosarcina</i> (20) <i>Methanosaeta</i> (10) <i>Nitrosocaldus</i> (7)	<i>Methanoculleus</i> (39) <i>Methanosarcina</i> (16) <i>Methanosaeta</i> (15) <i>Methanobrevibacter</i> (12) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (11)	<i>Methanosaeta</i> (48) <i>Methanoculleus</i> (40) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (7)	<i>Methanoculleus</i> (39) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (22) <i>Methanosarcina</i> (16) <i>Methanosaeta</i> (9) <i>Methanobrevibacter</i> (7)	<i>Methanosaeta</i> (40) <i>Methanoculleus</i> (47) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (9)	<i>Methanoculleus</i> (35) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (31) <i>Methanosarcina</i> (14) <i>Methanobrevibacter</i> (8)	<i>Methanoculleus</i> (45) <i>Methanomassiliicoccus</i> (36) <i>Methanosaeta</i> (10)

^a Observed number of species based on operational taxonomic units (at 97% sequence homology cut-off).

^b Good's estimator of coverage calculated as $(1 - (\text{singletons}/\text{reads})) \times 100$.

^c Estimated number of species average and standard deviation (between brackets).

Table 3

OTU nr	Identification ^a	Abundance (%)	Accession nr	H (%)	Source
1	<i>Longilinea</i>	30.31	JQ155218	99	Undefined full-scale anaerobic digester
2	<i>Leptolinea</i>	7.97	JQ104843	95	Undefined full-scale anaerobic digester
3	<i>Bacteroides</i>	7.67	GQ134121	99	Mesophilic anaerobic SBR treating swine waste (4.9 g N-TAN L ⁻¹)
6	<i>Levilinea saccharolytica</i>	1.15	EU407212	99	Household anaerobic digester
7	<i>Clostridium</i>	3.31	GQ995170	96	Mesophilic lab-scale anaerobic digester treating food industrial waste
12	<i>Acetivibrio</i>	1.45	GQ995163	99	Mesophilic lab-scale reactor treating food industrial waste
16	<i>Clostridium</i>	1.71	LN849648	99	Mesophilic lab-scale anaerobic digester reactor treating poultry manure
17	<i>Acholeplasma</i>	1.00	JN998160	99	Ammonium-stressed lab scale anaerobic digester
18	<i>Synergistes</i>	2.03	GQ134214	92	Mesophilic anaerobic SBR treating swine waste (1.0 g N-TAN L ⁻¹)
22	<i>Sterolibacterium denitrificans</i>	2.06	HM149064	92	Microbial fuel cell treating dairy wastewater
23	<i>Longilinea</i>	1.18	JQ104456	99	Undefined full-scale anaerobic digester
31	<i>Clostridium</i>	1.14	GQ136858	99	Mesophilic anaerobic SBR treating swine waste (5.2 g N-TAN L ⁻¹)
36	<i>Bacillus</i>	1.62	HQ183753	99	Undefined leachate sediment
2873	<i>Longilinea</i>	1.63	CU922827	98	Mesophilic anaerobic digester treating municipal wastewater sludge

^a According to the GreenGenes database.

Figure 1

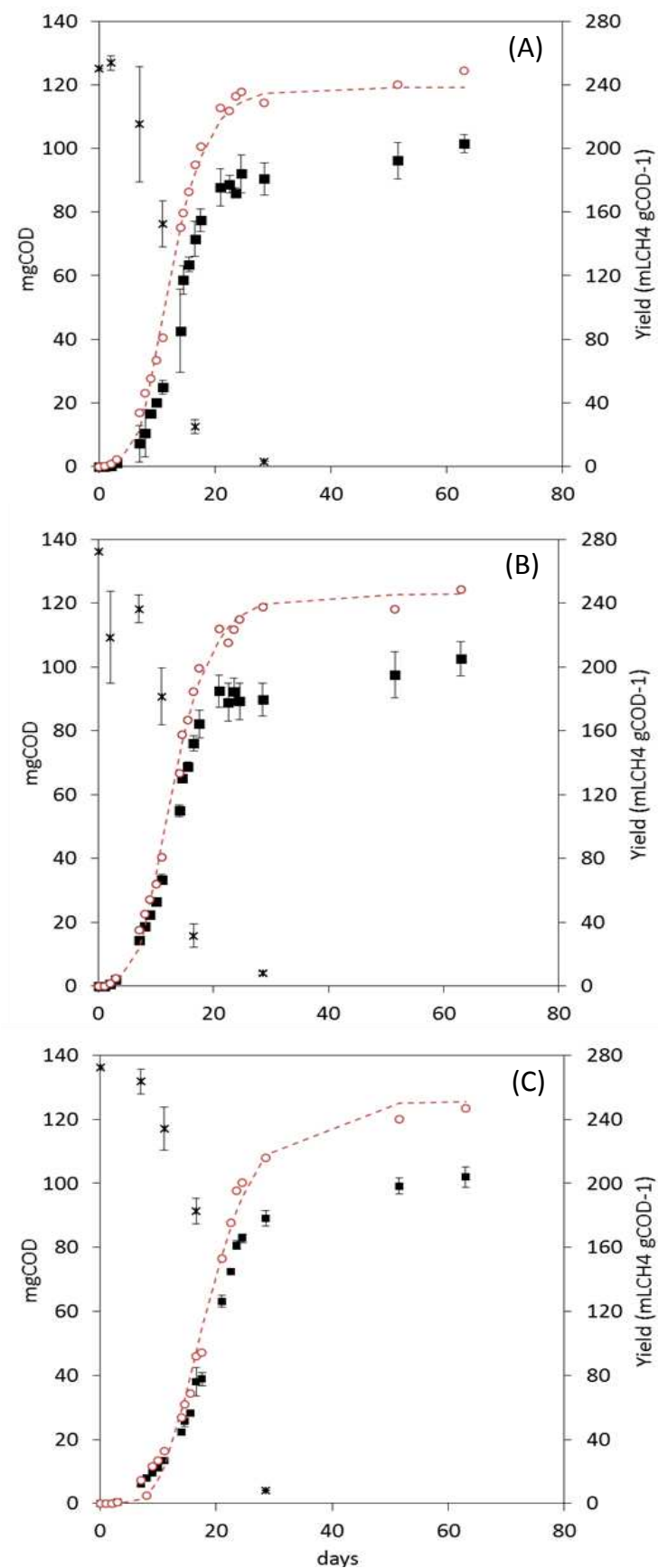


Figure 2

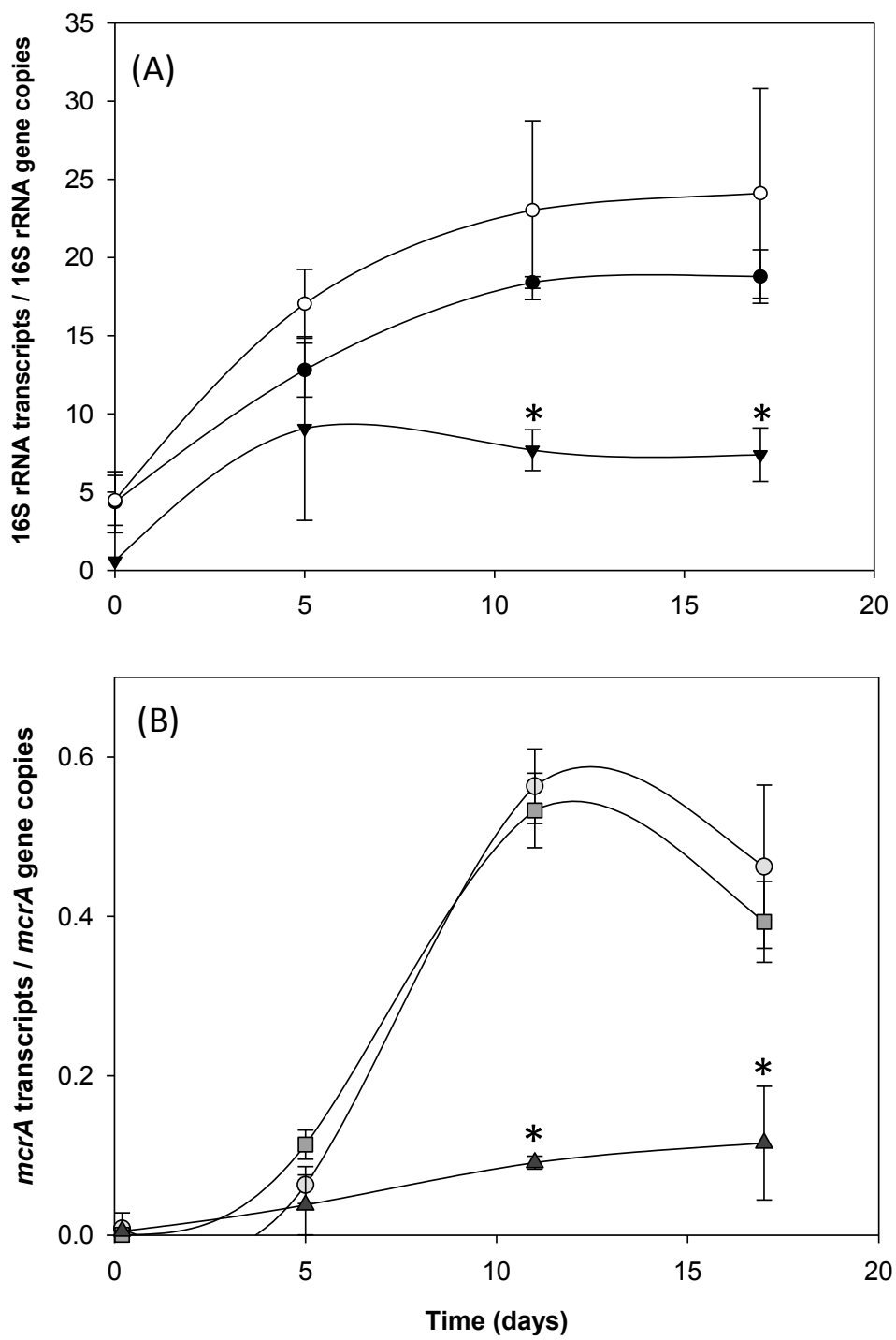


Figure 3

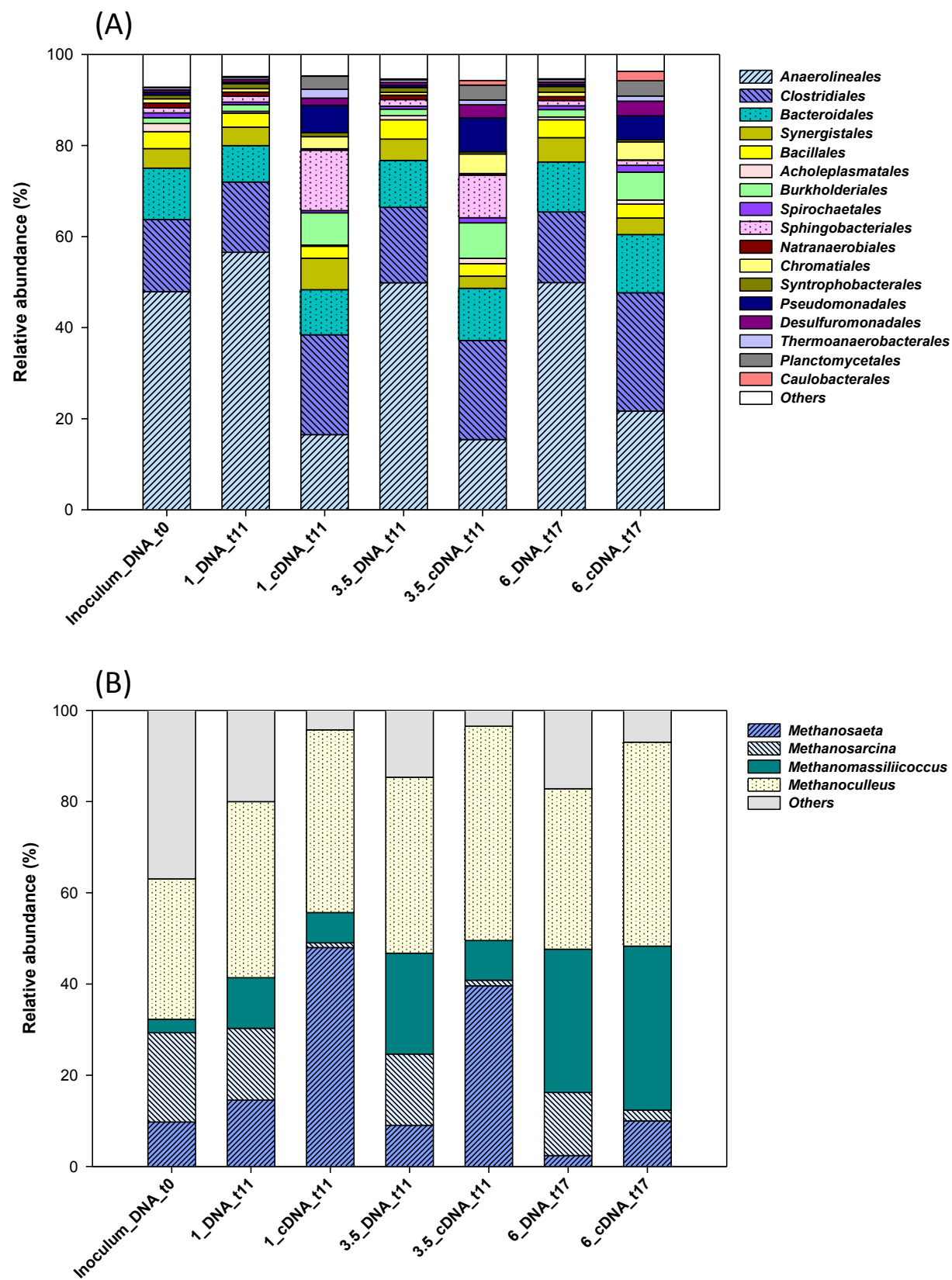
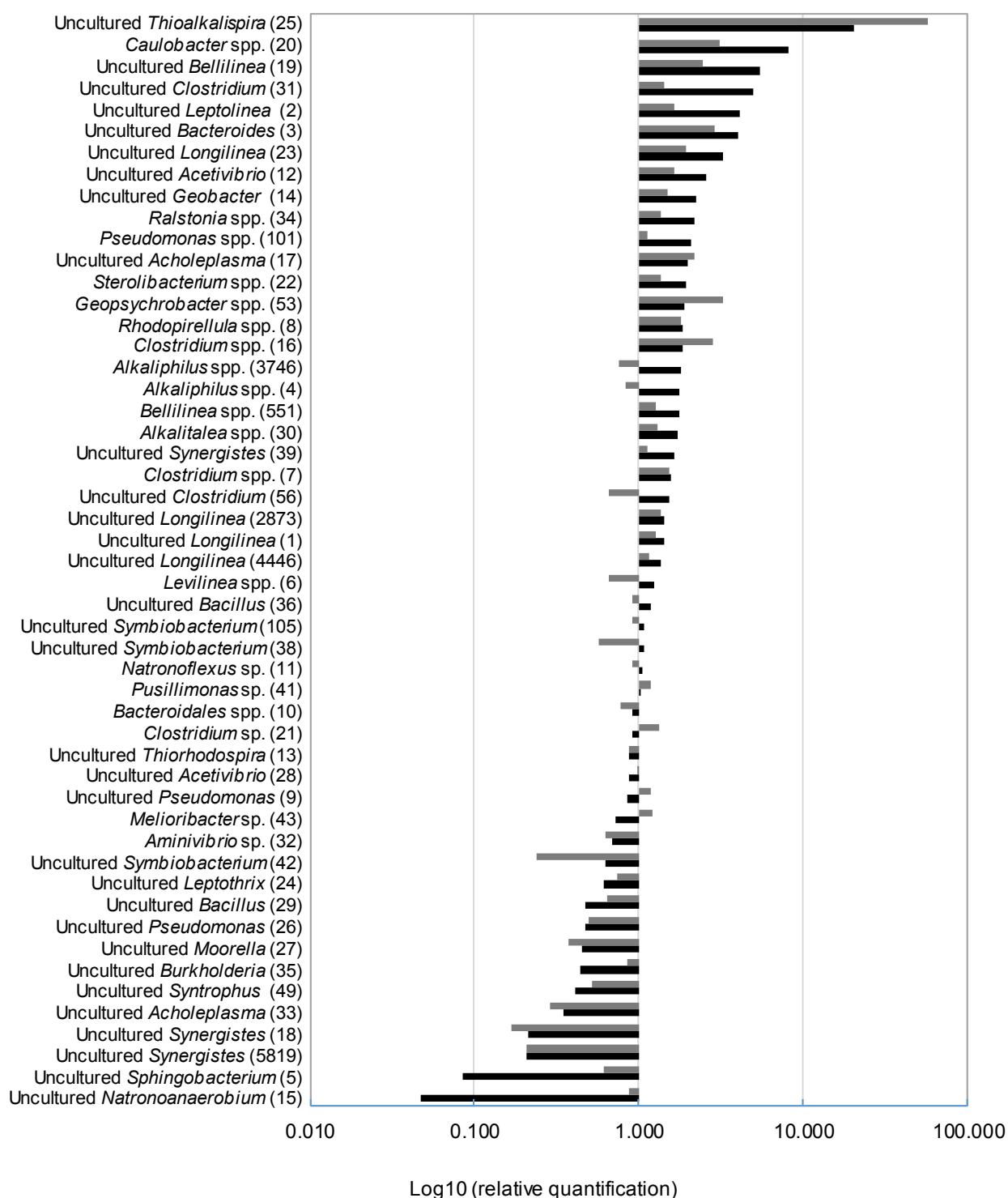


Figure 4



TAN (gN L ⁻¹)	FAN ^a (mgN L ⁻¹)	rAc ^b (mgCOD gVSS ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	rCH ₄ ^c (mgCOD gVSS ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lag phase ^c (d)	Methane yield ^c (mLCH ₄ gCOD ⁻¹)	αC ^d	Predominant methanogenic pathway ^d
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	Archaea	Methanoculleus (31) Methanobrevibacter (26) Methanosarcina (20) Methanosaeta (10) Nitrosocaldus (7)	Methanoculleus (39) Methanosarcina (16) Methanosaeta (15) Methanobrevibacter (12) Methanomassiliicoccus (11)	Methanosaeta (48) Methanoculleus (40) Methanomassiliicoccus (7)	Methanoculleus (39) Methanomassiliicoccus (22) Methanosarcina (16) Methanosaeta (9) Methanobrevibacter (7)	Methanosaeta (40) Methanoculleus (47) Methanomassiliicoccus (9)	Methanoculleus (35) Methanomassiliicoccus (31) Methanosarcina (14) Methanobrevibacter (8)	Methanoculleus (45) Methanomassiliicoccus (10)

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Table 3

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3	<i>Bacteroides</i>	7.67	GQ134121	99	Mesophilic anaerobic SBR treating swine waste (4.9 g N-TAN L ⁻¹)
6	<i>Levilinea saccharolytica</i>	1.15	EU407212	99	Household anaerobic digester
7	<i>Clostridium</i>	3.31	GQ995170	96	Mesophilic lab-scale anaerobic digester treating food industrial waste
12	<i>Acetivibrio</i>	1.45	GQ995163	99	Mesophilic lab-scale reactor treating food industrial waste
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18	<i>Synergistes</i>	2.03	GQ134214	92	Mesophilic anaerobic SBR treating swine waste (1.0 g N-TAN L ⁻¹)
22	<i>Sterolibacterium denitrificans</i>	2.06	HM149064	92	Microbial fuel cell treating dairy wastewater
23	<i>Longilinea</i>	1.18	JQ104456	99	Undefined full-scale anaerobic digester
31	<i>Clostridium</i>	1.14	GQ136858	99	Mesophilic anaerobic SBR treating swine waste (5.2 g N-TAN L ⁻¹)
36	<i>Bacillus</i>	1.62	HQ183753	99	Undefined leachate sediment
2873	<i>Longilinea</i>	1.63	CU922827	98	Mesophilic anaerobic digester treating municipal wastewater sludge

^a According to the GreenGenes database.

Figure 1

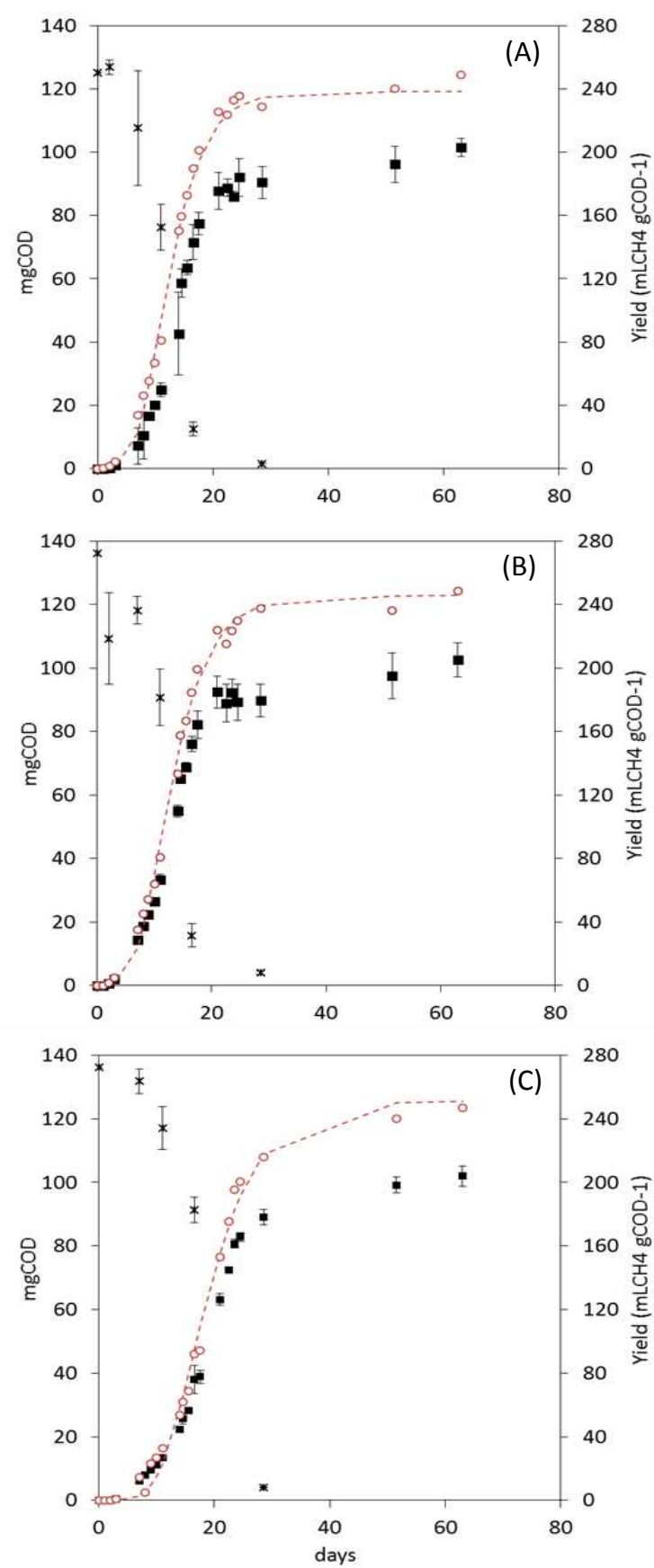


Figure 2

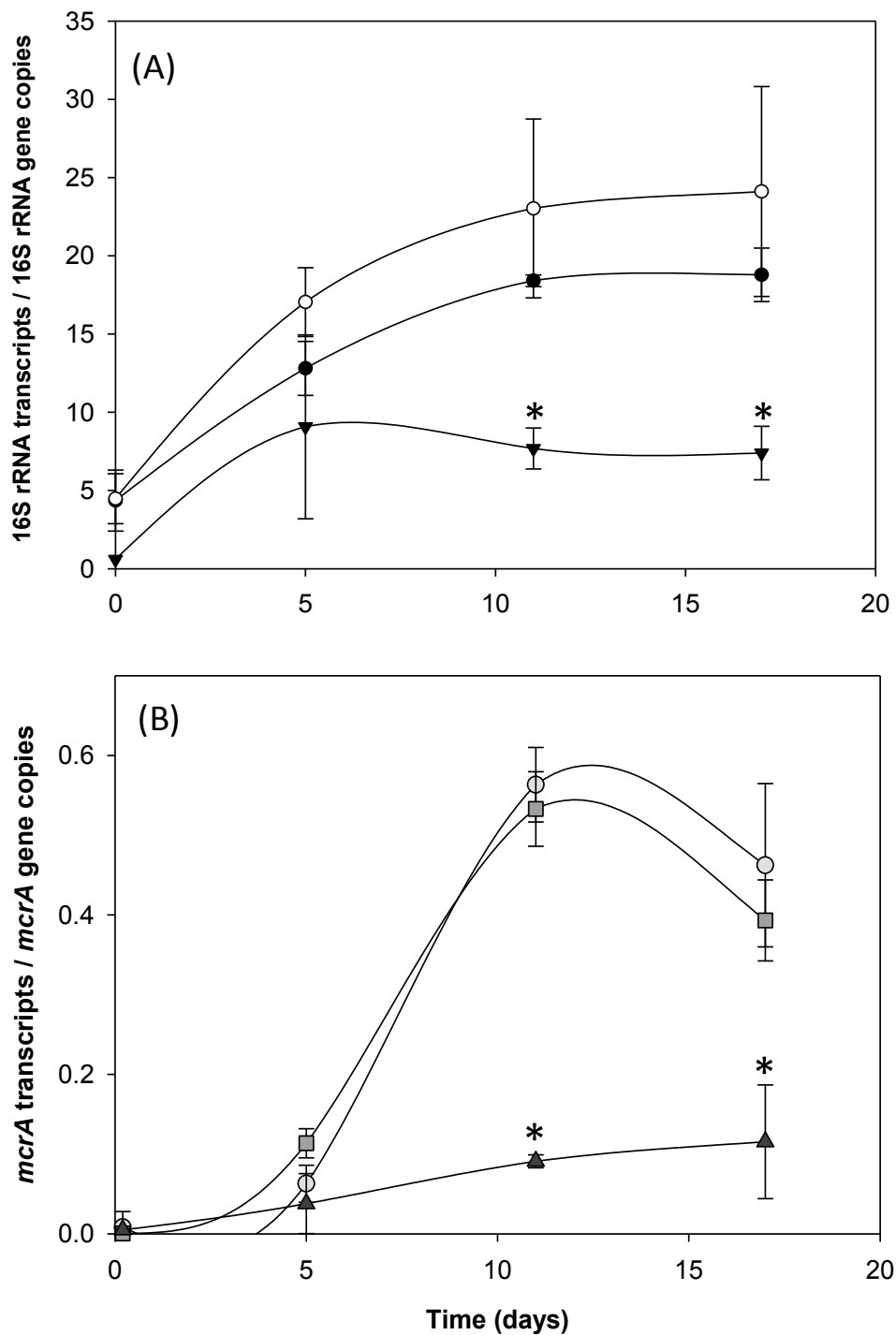


Figure 3

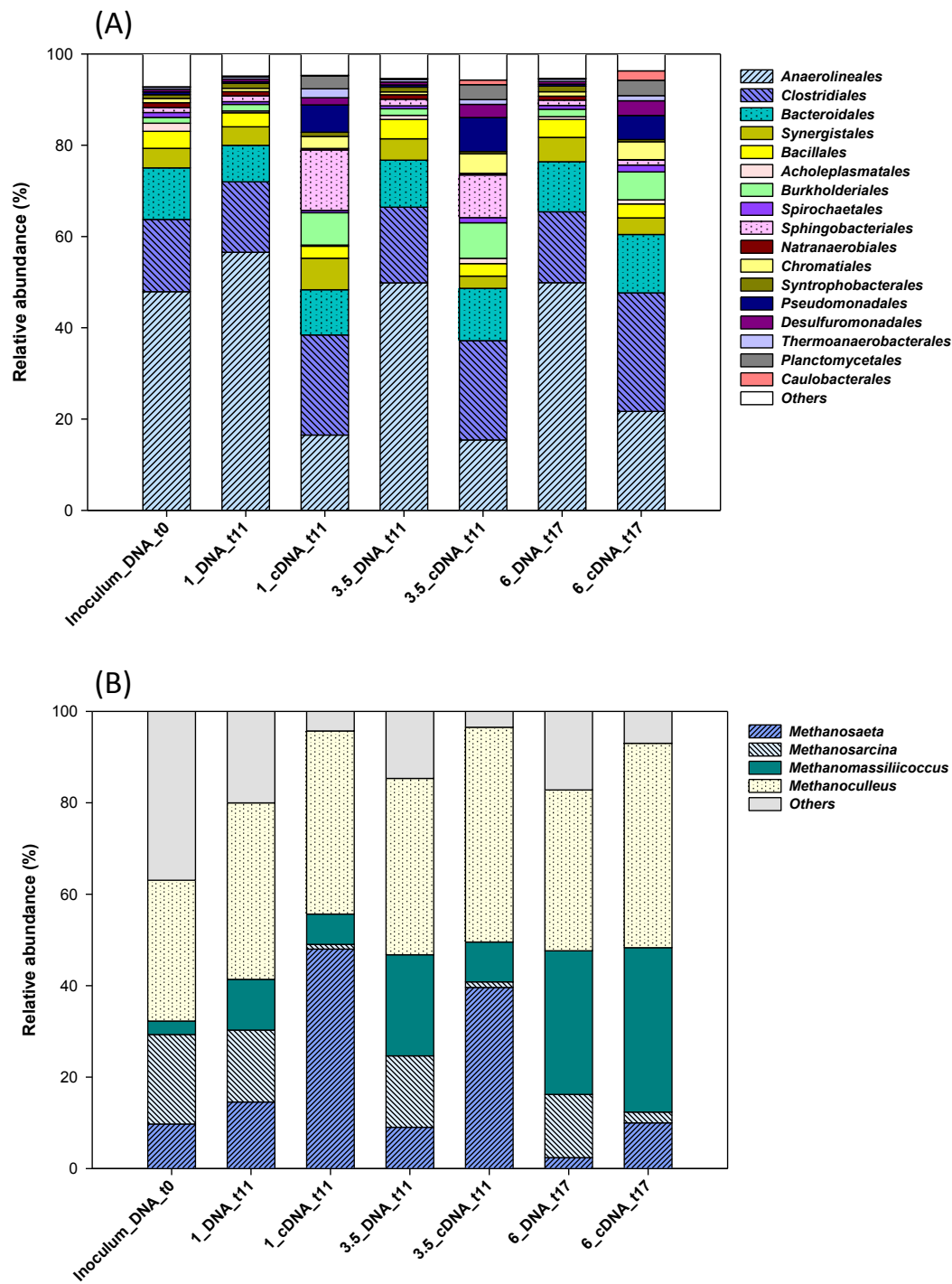


Figure 4

